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A LOW POWER MULTIPLE VALUED LOGIC SRAM CELL USING SINGLE ELECTRON DEVICES

by

Naila Syed

A Thesis

Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
through Electrical and Computer Engineering
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Master of Science at the
University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

2011

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Author's Declaration of Co-Authorship / Previous Publication

I. Co-Authorship Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis incorporates material that is result of joint research, as follows:

In all cases, the primary contributions, derivations, experimental setup, data analysis and interpretation were performed by the author through the supervision of Dr. C. Chen. In addition to supervision, Dr. C. Chen provided the author with the project idea, guidance, and financial support.

I am aware of the University of Windsor Senate Policy on Authorship and I certify that I have properly acknowledged the contribution of other researchers to my thesis, and have obtained written permission from the co-author to include the above material(s) in my thesis.

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II. Declaration of Previous Publication

This thesis includes two original paper that have been previously published/submitted for publication in peer reviewed journals, as follows

Thesis Chapter	Publication title/full citation	Publication status*
Chapter 4	N.Syed and C.Chen, “ <i>Low Power SET-Based SRAM Cell Design Using Negative Differential Conductance</i> ”, in Proc. of IEEE-Nano'11 , pp. 744-747, August 2011, Portland, Oregon, USA.	“Published”
Chapter 4,5	N.Syed and C.Chen, “Low Power SET-Based SRAM Cells for Binary and Multiple-Valued Logic”	“To be submitted” for publication

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Abstract

It is widely known that the decreasing feature size facilitated vast improvement in semiconductor-based design. The scaling down of MOS transistors has almost come to an end due to the limits dictated by their operating principle. In order to ensure further feature size reduction, the field of single-electronics has been developed. Single Electron Tunnelling (SET) technology offers the ability to control the transport and position of a single or a small number of electrons.

This thesis investigates the power optimisation of single electron memory based on negative differential conductance (NDC) characteristic. A novel SET-based NDC architecture with multiple peaks in I-V characteristic is introduced. Two specific static random-access memory (SRAM) cells are proposed: (i) a ternary SRAM with a standby power consumption of 0.98nW at logic margin of 270mV and (ii) a quaternary SRAM cell with standby power consumption of 5.06 at a logic margin of 160 mV operating at $T=77K$.. The read/write operations for the memory cell are briefly discussed. All simulations are conducted using the Monte Carlo method from SIMON tools.

A Sincere Dedication

To mummy, daddy, hubby and my baby Amaan with love...

It is your support and love that keeps me going.

Bismillah ir Rahmaan ir Raheem

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Before all, I thank Almighty Allah who has always guided me and blessed me with all the lovely people in my life who have supported and encouraged me at every step to make this work possible.

With utmost sincerity I express my gratitude and respect to my advisor Dr. Chunhong Chen, who has always inspired me to work with honesty, integrity and discipline. His guidance and reassuring aura have been indispensable boons contributing to the completion of this thesis. I am thankful to Guoqing Deng for his helpful comments and encouraging words all the time. This note would be incomplete without thanking Andria Ballo for her ever-readiness to help and valuable guidance.

I would never be here without the love, support and encouragement of Mom and Dad. I always wish that I can be as perfect as you both are. Not to forget Didi, Rabi, Ninna, my little bro Bu and my ever supportive husband, Hamed. Thank you guys for being there for me always. And of course, thank you, my baby Amaan for your great big hugs that completely make me forget about my stress.

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Table of Contents

Author's Declaration of Previous Publication	iii
Abstract	vi
A Sincere Dedication	vii
Acknowledgements	viii
List of Tables	xi
List of Figures	xii
List of Abbreviations	xiv

CHAPTER

I.	INTRODUCTION	
1.1	Background and Motivation.....	1
1.2	Thesis organisation.....	6
II.	SINGLE ELECTRON TUNNELLING BACKGROUND	
2.1	Single Electronics and Coulomb Blockade	8
2.2	Condition for Coulomb Blockade.....	10
2.3	Reliability issues of SET	13
2.3.1	Operating temperature	13
2.3.2	Random Background Charge.....	14
2.4	Monte Carlo Simulator for SET (SIMON)	15
III.	SRAM DESIGN METHODOLOGY USING SINGLE ELECTRON DEVICES EXHIBITING NDC	
3.1	NDC blocks based on single electron devices	16
3.1.1	NDC Block 1	16
3.1.2	NDC Block 2	18
3.1.3	NDC Block 3	20
3.2	SRAM structure using NDC elements.....	21
3.3	SET based READ/WRITE switch	23
3.4	Performance metrics for SRAM structure	26

3.5 SRAM Cell based on single electron NDC elements	28
3.4.1 SRAM cell A.....	28
3.4.2 SRAM cell B.....	32
IV. STANDBY POWER OPTIMISATION TECHNIQUE FOR STATIC MEMORY CELL	
4.1 Optimisation Methodology	36
4.2 Effect of Temperature and Random background charge	39
V. A NOVEL SET BASED ELEMENT WITH MULTIPLE PEAK NDC	
5.1 Multiple peak NDC architecture.....	43
5.2 Mechanism for multiple NDC peaks	44
5.3 Effect of Temperature and Background charge	46
5.4 A Novel MVL SRAM cell based on single electron devices	47
5.5 Standby power optimisation of MVL SRAM cell	52
5.6 A Novel Quaternary SRAM cell.....	55
VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS.....	57
VII. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK	
7.1 Conclusion.....	60
7.2 Future work.....	60
REFERENCES	62
APPENDIX A : PERMISSION FROM CO -AUTHOR	65
VITA AUCTORIS	67

List of Tables

1.1 Comparison of different memory types	4
3.1 Parameters for load and driving NDC Blocks	28
3.2 Logic state for different values of Input voltage V_{ds}	31
3.3 Performance metrics for SRAM Cell of Fig 3.11	31
3.4 Parameters for load and driving NDC Blocks	33
3.5 Logic state for different values of Input voltage V_{ds}	33
3.6 Performance metrics for SRAM Cell of Fig 3.14	35
3.7 Performance metrics for SRAM Cell of Fig 3.11	35
5.1 (a) Parameters for the Multiple peak static memory cell	
(b) Parameters for write switch.....	49
5.2 Parameters for the Quaternary memory NDC elements	55
6.1 Comparison of SET based SRAM cell 1	57
6.2 Comparison of different SRAM cell.....	58

List of Figures

1.1	Feature size reduction within the last 3 decades	2
1.2	Classification of memory types	3
1.3	Negative Differential resistance characteristic curve	5
2.1	Equivalent circuit for double tunnel junction	11
2.2	IV characteristic for double tunnel junction	13
2.3	Interface of Monte Carlo simulator SIMON	15
3.1	Schematic diagram SET block 1 exhibiting NDC	17
3.2	IV characteristic of SET block 1	17
3.3	Schematic diagram SET block 2 exhibiting NDC	19
3.4	IV characteristic of SET block 2	19
3.5	Schematic diagram SET block 3 exhibiting NDC	20
3.6	IV characteristic of SET block 3	21
3.7	Schematic Diagram for NDC based SET memory cell	22
3.8	Load lines of driving and load SET block	22
3.9	SET transistors for (a)WRITE and (b) READ	24
3.10	Memory write input and read output waveforms: (a) input data; (b) write switch; (c) voltage on memory node	25
3.11	Schematic of SRAM cell using NDC element from Section 3.2.3	29
3.12	Load Line diagram for SRAM cell using NDCelement from Section 3.2.3	30
3.13	Stable voltages are at 150mV and 400mV	30
3.14	Schematic of SRAM cell using NDC element from Section 3.2.2	32
3.15	Two stable voltages are at 110mV and 230mV	34
4.1	Standby power vs. gate capacitance for memory cell using NDCs of [5]	37
4.2	Logic margin vs. gate capacitance for memory cell using NDCs of [5]	38
4.3	Standby power vs. logic margin for memory cell using NDCs of [5].	38
4.4	Logic margin vs. standby power at different temperatures	39
4.5	Logic margin vs. standby power at different background charges	40
5.1	Proposed multiple peak Set based NDC architecture	43
5.2	I–V characteristics for the multiple peak SET block	44
5.3	Probable electron charge configuration	46
5.4	Effect on temperature on the multiple peaks NDC	46
5.5	Effect on Random background charge on the multiple peak NDC	47
5.6	MVL SRAM memory cell schematic	48

5.7	Load line diagram for memory cell using two peak NDC element	50
5.8	Memory voltages (a) input (b) write (c) memory node	51
5.9	Standby power vs. Logic margin for the ratio $C_g/C_t = 2$	52
5.10	Standby power vs. temperature at $C_t = 0.2 \text{ aF}$ for $C_g/C_t = 2$	53
5.11	Standby power vs. Logic margin for the ratio $C_g/C_t = 3$ at $T = 77 \text{ K}$	53
5.12	Load line diagram NDC element for $C_t = 0.1 \text{ aF}$ with ratio $C_g/C_t = 3$	54
5.13	IV characteristic for three peak NDC of Quaternary cell	55
5.14	Load-lines for load and driving SET blocks for the Quaternary memory cell	56

List of Abbreviations

CMOS -- Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor

DRAM -- Dynamic Random Access Memory

HFET – Hetero structure Field Effect Transistor

LSI -- Large Scale Integration

MOSFET – Metal Oxide Semiconductor Field Effect Transistor

MVL – Multiple Valued Logic

NDC – Negative Differential Conductance

PVCR – Peak to Valley Current Ratio

RAM – Random Access Memory

ROM – Read Only Memory

RTD -- Resonant Tunneling Diode

SED – Single Electron Device

SET -- Single Electron Transistor

SRAM – Static Random Access Memory

CHAPTER I:

INTRODUCTION

This chapter starts with a clear definition of the issue this research work addresses, explaining the importance of the work and its outcomes. Section 1.1 gives us some background for need for single electron technology and SRAM memory. Finally Section 1.2 briefly explains the organisation of this thesis.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION

The rapid growth of the semiconductor industry over the past three decades has largely been enabled by continual advancements in manufacturing technology which have allowed the size of the transistor, the basic building block in integrated circuits (ICs), to be steadily reduced with each new generation of technology. As the transistor size is scaled down, the chip area required for a given circuit is reduced, so that more chips can be manufactured on a single silicon wafer substrate, resulting in lower manufacturing cost per chip. Circuit operation speed also improves, because of reduced capacitance and higher transistor current density. Fabrication facilities presently manufacture ICs with minimum transistor lithographically defined feature size smaller than 100nm, so that the microprocessor products with transistor counts approaching 100 million transistors per chip can be manufactured cost effectively. Figure 1.1 shows the shrinking feature size with every decade. The scale-down of the size of MOSFET transistors has so far reached deep sub-50nm regime beyond which physical limits are introduced such as quantum effects, non-deterministic behaviour, second order effects etc. The major problem is the

rapidly increasing power dissipation due to ever larger numbers of transistors and high levels of interconnections that is pushing CMOS circuits beyond their cooling limit. Achieving low power operation of LSIs requires reduction in the total capacitance of circuits and operation voltage, which reduces the number of electrons participating in the operation of some unit instruction.

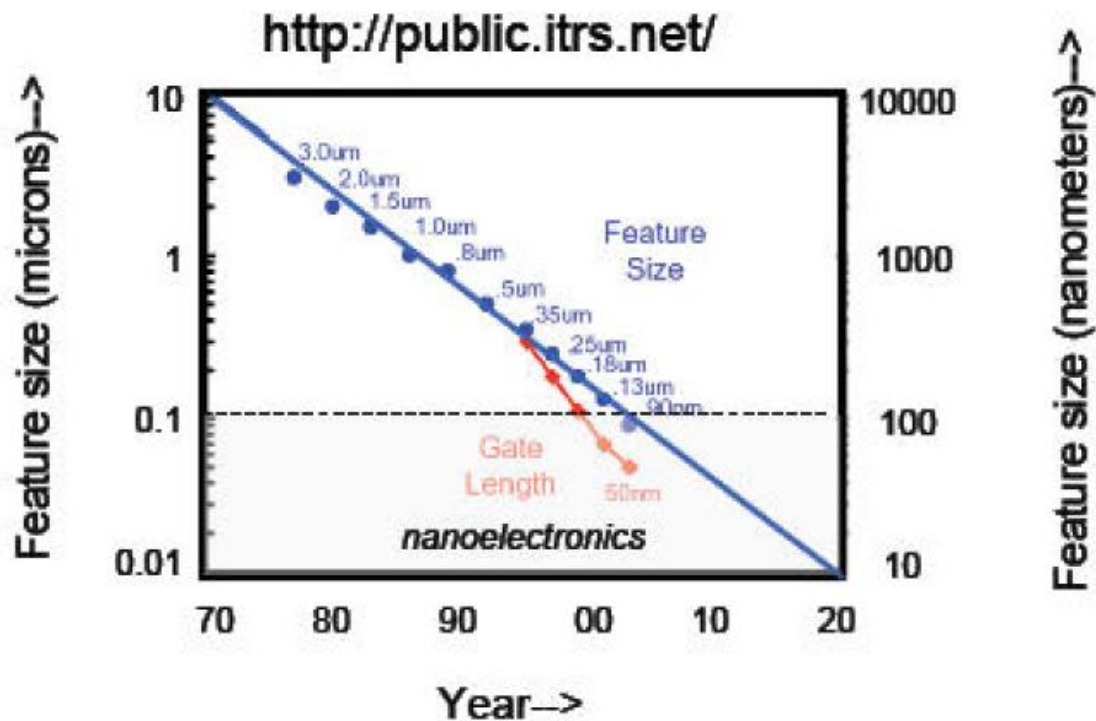


Figure 1.1: Feature size reduction within the last 3 decades. (International Technology Roadmap for Semiconductors. <http://public.itrs.net/>)

Single-electron devices (SEDs) [2–4], which literally have potential to manipulate electrons on the level of elementary charge, are thus considered to be the devices that will allow such a change. In addition to their low-power nature, SEDs have a rather simple operation principle, and because of this, operation is basically guaranteed even when

device size is reduced to the molecular level. In addition, their performance improves as they become smaller. These properties are quite beneficial for large-scale integration

Many types of memory devices are available for use in modern computer systems

Fig 1.2 shows that memory is broadly categorized as RAM, ROM and Hybrid. Data stored in RAM is volatile and is retained as long as power is applied to the chip.

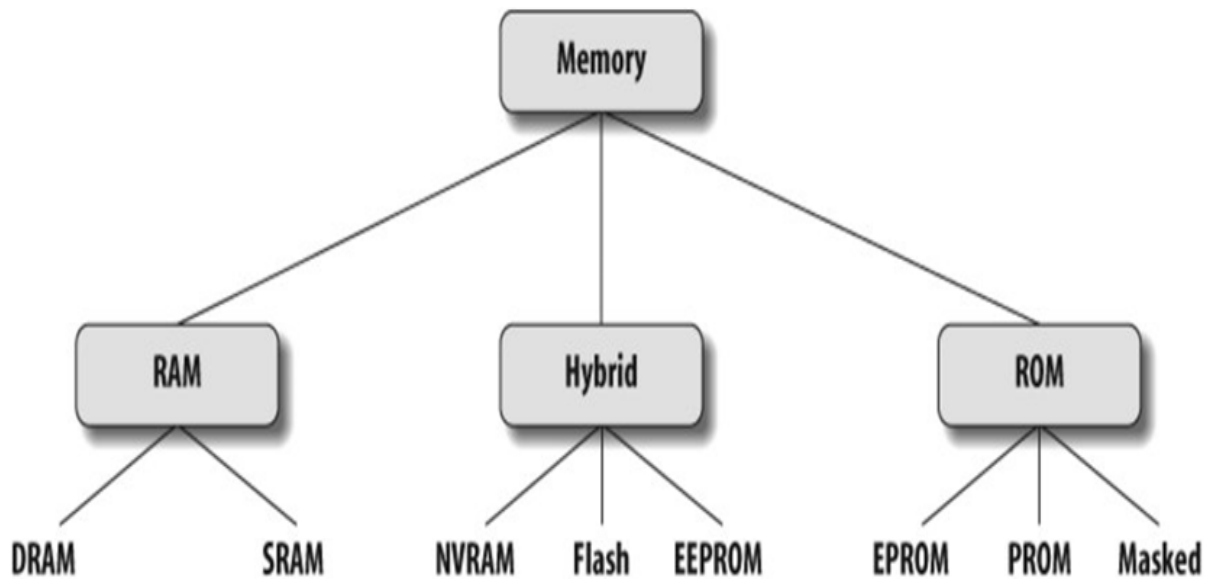


Figure 1.2: Classification of memory types

Data can be rewritten infinite number of times. In ROM, information once written is retained forever, even when power is removed. Information may be rewritten a few times but only by manufacturer or programmer. Hybrid memory shares the features of both ROM and RAM. Table I broadly the features of different types of memories

Table 1.1: Comparison of different memory types

Memory type	Volatile?	Writable?	Erase/rewrite cycles	Relative cost	Relative speed
SRAM	Yes	Yes	Unlimited	Expensive	Fast
DRAM	Yes	Yes	Unlimited	Moderate	Moderate
Masked ROM	No	No	N/A	Inexpensive (in quantity)	Slow
PROM	No	Once, with programmer	N/A	Moderate	Slow
EPROM	No	Yes, with programmer	Limited (see specs)	Moderate	Slow
EEPROM	No	Yes	Limited (see specs)	Expensive	Moderate to read, slow to write
Flash	No	Yes	Limited (see specs)	Moderate	Fast to read, slow to write
NVRAM	No	Yes	None	Expensive	Fast

The RAM family includes two important memory devices: static RAM (SRAM) and dynamic RAM (DRAM). The DRAM memory cell consists of a single pass transistor and a capacitor (1T/1C) wherein information is stored in the form of a charge on the capacitor. Although the DRAM cell provides the most compact layout it requires frequent refreshing (typically on the order of once per millisecond) because the charge on the capacitor leaks away at the rate of approximately 10^{-15} Amperes per cell. This problem is exacerbated by technology scaling because the transistor leakage current increases with decreasing channel length, and also because a reduction in a cell capacitance results in a small number of stored carriers, so that more frequent refreshing is necessary. Static RAM (SRAM) does not require refreshing and is generally faster than DRAM. However,

the SRAM cell is more complex. Presently a CMOS SRAM cell requires either four n-channel metal-oxide-semiconductor field effect transistors (MOSFETs) and two p-channel MOSFETs or four n-channel MOSFETs and two polycrystalline silicon (poly-Si) load resistors, resulting in significantly larger cell size. Innovations which provide significant reductions in SRAM cell while allowing the SRAM cell to retain favourable operating characteristics are therefore highly desirable.

Negative differential conductance (NDC) devices have previously been proposed for compact static memory applications. E. Goto [11] disclosed an SRAM cell consisting of two resonant tunnel diodes (RTDs) and a single pass transistor. For a variety of NDC devices including RTDs, the current first increases with increasing applied voltage, reaching a peak value, then decreases with increasing applied voltage over a range of applied voltages, exhibiting negative differential conductance over this range and reaching a minimum value (valley). At yet higher applied voltage the current again increases with increasing applied voltage. Thus the current –vs.-voltage characteristic is shaped like the letter ‘N’.

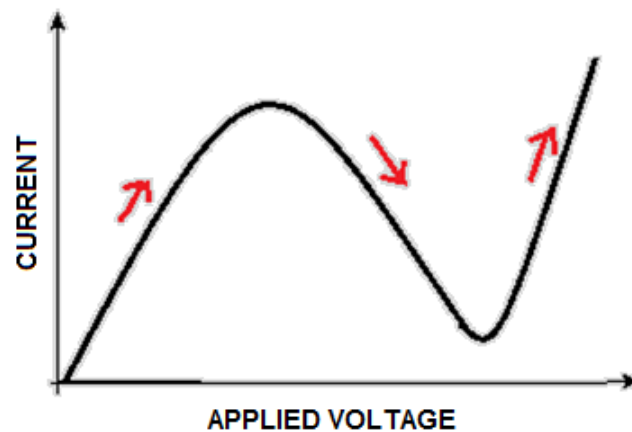


Figure 1.3: Negative Differential resistance characteristic curve

A figure of merit for NDC devices is the ratio of the peak current to valley current (PVCR). The PVCR of RTDs is generally not high enough to make it practical for low power SRAM application, because in order for the RTD to have sufficient current drive, the valley current is too large, causing large static power dissipation.

There exist only a few reports concerning different cells of SETs exhibiting NDC [3-5]. In 1999, Heij et al. [3] reported on NDC effects in SETs for the first time, but the design was not suitable for memory application due very small operating voltage range. Later an NDR cell composed of two cross-connected SETs was presented by Mahapatra and Ionescu [4] followed by another interesting NDC element reported by Lee and Jeong [5] in 2004. These designs even though suitable for memory application were not optimised for low standby power consumption.

Accordingly there exists a significant need for SET based NDC devices with a low standby power consumption and good PVCR suitable for low power, low cost SRAM. Another reason for emphasizing on memory based on NDC devices is to be able to design SET based cell that exhibit multiple peaks in NDC characteristic since there have been no reports on SET based architecture that exhibits multiple peak NDC characteristic suitable for use for multiple valued logic (MVL) Static memory cell.

1.2 THESIS ORGANISATION

This thesis is organized as follows. Chapter 2 provides a background on the Single electron tunnelling phenomena and discusses the key concerns of SET technology.

Later some basic information is presented for the Monte Carlo simulator for SET SIMON.

Chapter 3 presents a few proposed SET cells exhibiting NDC characteristic and clearly explains the methodology to build a SRAM cell using two similar NDC elements. The performance metrics of such a design are highlighted and discussed briefly. A read/write circuit based on single electron oscillation property is also introduced which is used throughout for simulation in SIMON. SRAM cell are implemented using the available SET based NDC elements and compared based on the performance.

Chapter 4 deals with an optimisation technique for low standby power consumption with a good compromise between logic margin. In chapter 5, we propose a novel SET architecture exhibiting multiple peaks in NDC characteristic and implement its application as a low power Multiple valued logic (MVL) SRAM cell. Further discussions on optimisation of this design and effect of temperature and background charges are carried out.

In Chapter 6, all the results are compared and analysed based on performance metrics. Lastly Chapter 7 concludes the thesis along with some future research works.

CHAPTER II

SINGLE ELECTRON TUNNELLING BACKGROUND

2.1 SINGLE ELECTRONICS AND COULOMB BLOCKADE

To have basic understanding single electron devices, we need to review the basic physical mechanism involved in these devices. Single electron devices are based on the phenomenon of coulomb blockade involving the classical effect of repulsion between like charges [26]. The energy that determines the transport of electrons through a single electron device is Helmholtz's free energy, F , which is defined as difference between total energy, E_{Σ} , stored in the device and work done by power sources, W . The total energy stored includes all components that have to be considered when charging an island with an electron.

$$F = E_{\Sigma} - W \quad (2.1)$$

$$E_{\Sigma} = E_C + \Delta E_F + E_N \quad (2.2)$$

The change in Helmholtz's free energy a tunnel event causes is a measure of the probability of this tunnel event. The general fact that physical systems tend to occupy lower energy states, is apparent in electrons favouring those tunnel events which reduce the free energy. The components of E_{Σ} are:

2.1.1 Electron Electron Interaction, E_C

An entirely classical model for electron-electron interaction is based on the electrostatic capacitive charging energy. The interaction arises from the fact, that for

every additional charge dq which is transported to a conductor, work has to be done against the field of already present charges residing on the conductor. Charging an island with capacitance C with an electron of charge e requires

$$E_C = \frac{e^2}{2C_\Sigma} \quad (2.3)$$

2.1.2 Fermi Energy, ΔE_F

Systems with sufficiently small islands are not adequately described with the above classical model alone. They exhibit second electron-electron interaction energy, namely the change in Fermi energy, when charged with a single electron.

2.1.3 Quantum Confinement Energies, E_N

With decreasing island size the energy level spacing of electron states increases indirectly proportional to the square of the dot size. Taking an infinite potential well as a simple model for a quantum dot, one calculates by solving Schrödinger's equation

$$E_N = \frac{1}{2m^*} \left(\frac{\hbar N}{2d} \right)^2 \quad (2.4)$$

2.1.4 Work Done by Voltage Sources, W

To evaluate the available energy for a given tunnel event, the work done on the system by the power supplies has to be included, since thermodynamically the interacting islands represent an open system. The work done by the voltage sources may be written as the time integral over the power delivered to the system.

$$W = \sum_{\text{sources}} \int V(t) I(t) dt \quad (2.5)$$

2.2 CONDITION FOR COULOMB BLOCKADE

Minimum tunnel resistance for single electron charging is

$$R_T > \frac{h}{2\pi e^2} = 25813 \, \Omega \quad (2.6)$$

The thermal kinetic energy of the electron must be less than the Coulomb repulsion energy which will lead to reduction in current leading to blockade.

$$kT < E_C \quad (2.7)$$

Consider two tunnel junctions in series biased with an ideal voltage source as shown in Fig. 2.1. The charges on junction one, junction two, and on the whole island can be written as

$$q_1 = C_1 V_1, \quad q_2 = C_2 V_2, \quad q = q_2 - q_1 + q_0 = -ne + q_0 \quad (2.8)$$

n_1 the number of electrons that tunnelled through the first junction entering the island, n_2 the number of electrons that tunnelled through the second junction exiting the island, and $n = n_1 - n_2$ the net number of electrons on the island.

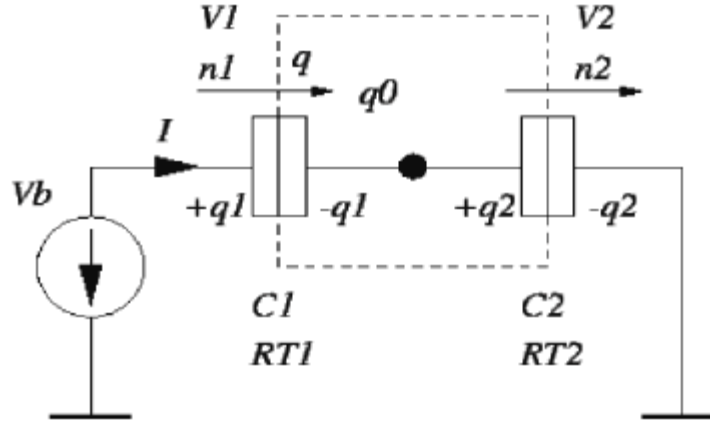


Figure 2.1: Equivalent circuit for double tunnel junction

A background charge q_0 produces generally a non-integer charge offset. The background charge is induced by stray capacitances that are not shown in the circuit diagram Fig 2.1 and impurities located near the island, which are practically always present. Using (2.8) and

$$V_b = V_1 + V_2 \quad (2.9)$$

gives

$$V_1 = \frac{C_2 V_b + n e - q_0}{C_\Sigma}, \quad V_2 = \frac{C_1 V_b - n e + q_0}{C_\Sigma}, \quad C_\Sigma = C_1 + C_2 \quad (2.10)$$

The electrostatic energy stored in the double junction is

$$E_c = \frac{q_1^2}{2C_1} + \frac{q_2^2}{2C_2} = \frac{C_1 C_2 V_b^2 + (n e - q_0)^2}{2C_\Sigma} \quad (2.11)$$

In addition, to get the free energy one must consider the work done by the voltage source. If one electron tunnels through the first junction the voltage source has to replace

this electron, plus the change in polarization charge caused by the tunnelling electron. V_1 changes according to (2.10) by $-e/C_\Sigma$ and hence the polarization charge is $-e C_1/C_\Sigma$. The charge q_1 gets smaller, which means that the voltage source receives polarization charge. The total charge that has to be replaced by the voltage source is therefore $-e C_1/C_\Sigma$ and the work done by the voltage source in case electrons tunnel through junction 1 and junction 2 is accordingly

$$W_1 = \frac{-n_1 e V_b C_2}{C_\Sigma}, \quad W_2 = \frac{-n_2 e V_b C_1}{C_\Sigma} \quad (2.12)$$

Thus, the free energy of the complete circuit is

$$F(n_1, n_2) = E_C - W = \frac{1}{C_\Sigma} \left(\frac{1}{2} (C_1 C_2 V_b^2 + (n e - q_0)^2) + e V_b (C_1 n_2 + C_2 n_1) \right) \quad (2.13)$$

The change in free energy for an electron tunnelling through junction 1 and 2 is given by

$$\Delta F_1^\pm = F(n_1 \pm 1, n_2) - F(n_1, n_2) = \frac{e}{C_\Sigma} \left(\frac{e}{2} \pm (C_2 V_b + n e - q_0) \right) \quad (2.14)$$

$$\Delta F_2^\pm = F(n_1, n_2 \pm 1) - F(n_1, n_2) = \frac{e}{C_\Sigma} \left(\frac{e}{2} \pm (C_1 V_b - n e + q_0) \right) \quad (2.15)$$

The probability of a tunnel event will only be high, if the change in free energy is negative - a transition to a lower energy state. The leading term in (2.14) and (2.15) causes ΔF to be positive until the magnitude of the bias voltage V_b exceeds a threshold which depends on the smaller of the two capacitances. This is the case for all possible transitions starting from an uncharged island, $n=0$ and $q_0=0$. For symmetric junctions

($C_1=C_2$) the condition becomes $V_b > e/C_\Sigma$. This suppression of tunnelling for low bias is the **Coulomb blockade**. Figure 2.2 shows IV characteristic for double tunnel junction. The solid line gives characteristic for $q_0=0$ and the dashed line for $q_0=0.5e$. Coulomb blockade is a direct result of additional coulomb energy $e^2/2C$ which must be expended by an electron in order to tunnel into or out of an island

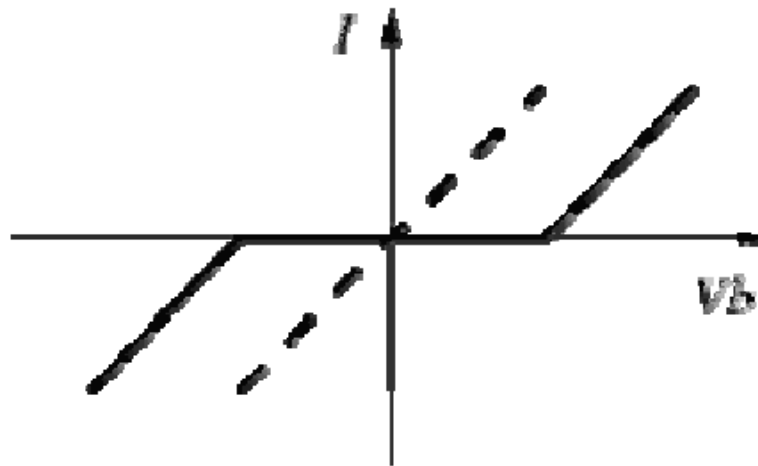


Figure 2.2: IV characteristic for double tunnel junction.

2.3 RELIABILITY ISSUES OF SET

2.3.1 OPERATING TEMPERATURE

Needless to say only when room temperature operation is achieved will single-electron devices have a noticeable impact. Liquid nitrogen operation temperature is only acceptable for certain special applications. Room temperature operation is only possible with feature sizes below 10 nm, which is today only achievable with granular production techniques. New material systems which have lower dielectric permittivity or exhibit higher quantum confinement energy due to their reduced effective mass may reduce this

spatial restriction noticeable. Unfortunately, new materials very often require new processes which have to be developed and studied. This takes a lot of time and research effort. Hence the economical factor limits this possibility drastically. Another factor for the maximum operation temperature is the affordable error rate. In single-electron logic devices error rates strongly depend on the temperature. If the thermal energy, $k_B T$, is larger or of equal magnitude than the Coulomb energy, no sensible operation is usually possible.

2.3.2 RANDOM BACKGROUND CHARGE

This term denotes any charge which is located close enough to the circuit to be disturbing, but which is outside of our direct control, making it virtually random. These are charged impurities, traps, parasitic and stray capacitances and other circuit parts, which may induce charges on sensitive quantum dots. Single-electron devices are extremely charge sensitive, which can be exploited for highly sensitive electrometers, but which is in most devices a deadly feature, destroying desired device functions. Currently there are two approaches under investigation, which deal with this problem. One possibility is to find process technologies which allow production of impurity free materials or materials where impurities accumulate in regions where they are not disturbing device behaviour. A second approach is to use SET features which are independent of random background charge, like Coulomb oscillations.

2.4 MONTE CARLO SIMULATOR FOR SET (SIMON)

All our simulations in the following chapters are carried out using the Monte Carlo method. SIMON is a single-electron tunnel device and circuit simulator [12]. It allows transient and stationary simulation of arbitrary circuit consisting of tunnel junctions, capacitors, and voltage sources of three kinds: constant, piecewise linearly time dependent, and voltage controlled. A graphic user interface allows the quick and easy design of circuits with single-electron tunnel devices. Parameters can be changed interactively, and simulation results can be looked at in graphical form. Also, all simulation parameters such as simulation mode, event number, and temperature, are modifiable. Fig 2.3 shows the interface of SIMON.

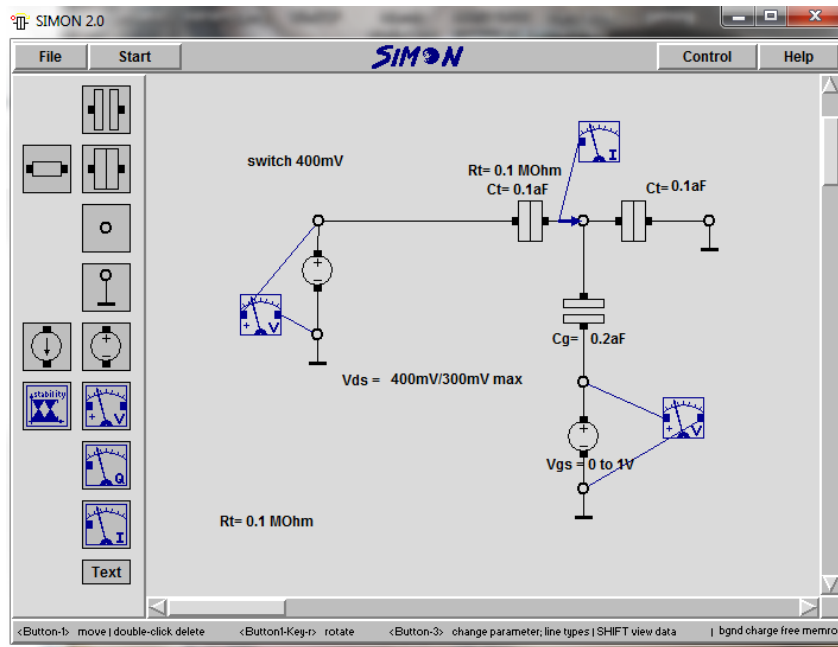


Figure 2.3: Interface of Monte Carlo simulator SIMON

CHAPTER III

SRAM DESIGN METHODOLOGY USING SINGLE ELECTRON DEVICES EXHIBITING NDC

This chapter compares different negative differential blocks based on single electron devices in Section 3.1. The methodology to construct static RAM cell using NDC elements is presented in section 3.2. A read/write circuit based on Coulomb oscillations that is used throughout our research simulations is presented in section 3.3. Section 3.4 highlights the different performance metrics in SRAM cell. In section 3.5 SET based static memory cell using each NDC element is implemented and analysed in terms of the performance metrics.

3.1 NDC BLOCKS BASED ON SINGLE ELECTRON DEVICES

A few SET blocks exhibiting Negative Differential Conductance characteristic have been proposed [3-5]

3.1.1 NDC BLOCK 1

In 1999, Heij and Dixon [3] fabricated an NDC cell consisting of two SETs, as shown in Fig. 3.1.

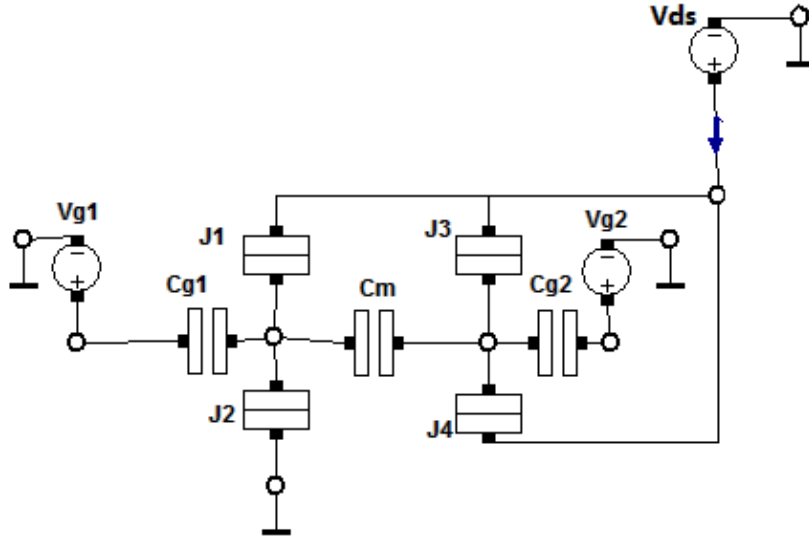


Fig 3.1: Schematic diagram SET block 1 exhibiting NDC

The parameters are $C_{j1} = C_{j2} = 300$ aF, $R_{j1} = R_{j2} = 0.3$ M Ω , $C_{j3} = C_{j4} = 320$ aF, $R_{j3} = R_{j4} = 0.65$ M Ω , $C_{g1} = C_{g2} = 300$ aF, $C_m = 1.28 \times 10^{-15}$ F, $V_{g1} = 3$ mV, $V_{g2} = 1$ mV, $V_{ds} = 0$ to 0.15 mV, $T = 4$ K

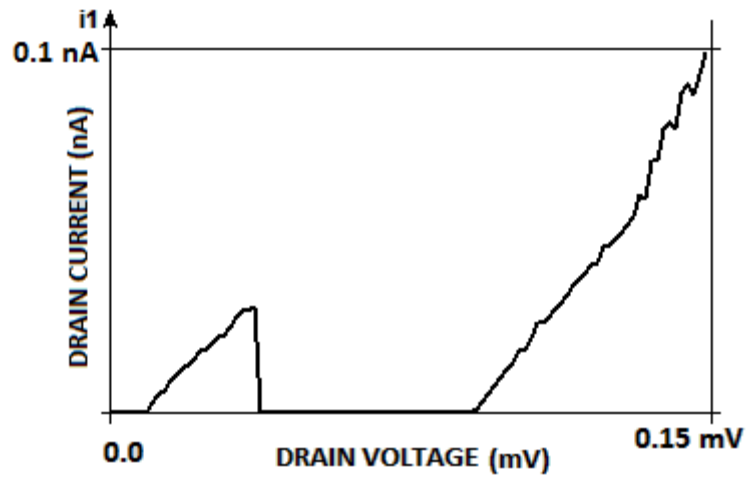


Fig 3.2: IV characteristic of SET block 1

From Fig 3.2, we can see clearly that negative differential conductance occurs at drain voltage $V_{ds} = 0.04$ mV. With V_{ds} continuously increasing from 0.04 to 0.08 mV, the current still remains zero after which it begins to increase. The drawback of this design is that it operates at very low temperature of 4K and operates over a very low drain voltage range making it not suitable for Static memory design.

3.1.2 NDC BLOCK 2

In 2004, Mahapatra and Ionescu designed an NDR cell consisting of two cross-connected SETs [4], as shown in Fig. 3.3. The drain port of one SET is connected with a current source, whereas the drain port of the other one is connected with the input. The parameters are $C_{j1} = C_{j2} = C_{j3} = C_{j4} = 0.15$ aF, $R_{j1} = R_{j2} = R_{j3} = R_{j4} = 1$ M Ω , $C_{g1} = C_{g2} = 0.5$ aF, $V_{in} = 0$ to 300 mV, $T = 50$ K.

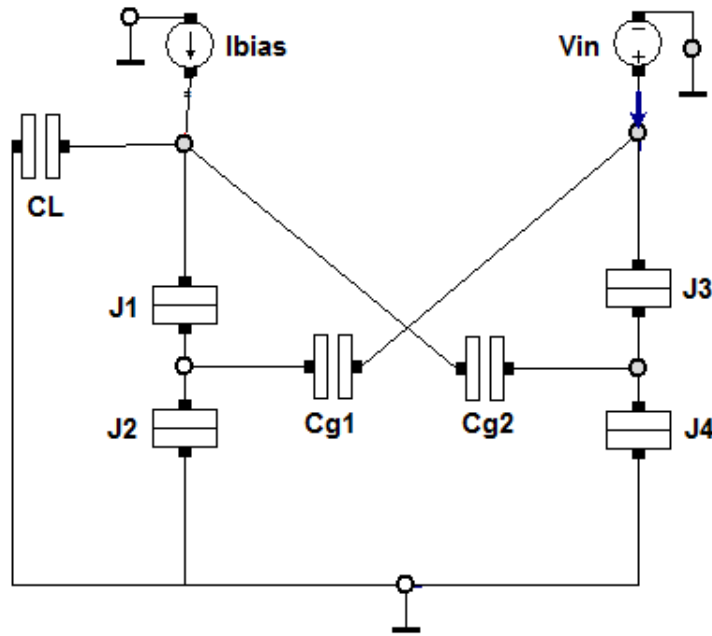


Fig 3.3: Schematic diagram SET block 2 exhibiting NDC

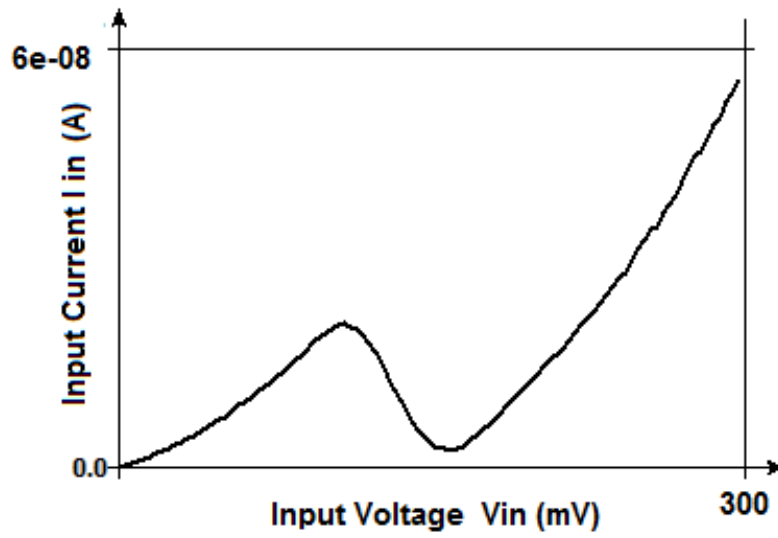


Fig 3.4: IV characteristic of SET block 2

Negative differential conductance characteristic is observed as V_{in} increases from 107mV to 156mV. With further increase, the current ' I_{in} ' increases almost linearly with

voltage ' V_{in} '. This design operates at a slightly higher temperature of 50K but yet not high enough. A good single electron device should work at room temperature (300 K), or at least at liquid nitrogen temperature (77 K).

3.1.3 NDC BLOCK 3

This design was proposed by Lee and Jeong [5] .The schematic circuit diagram of the NDC device based on a SET is shown in Fig. 3.5. The right island forms a SET, allowing a current to flow between voltage source and ground through the left island, which acts as an electron box.

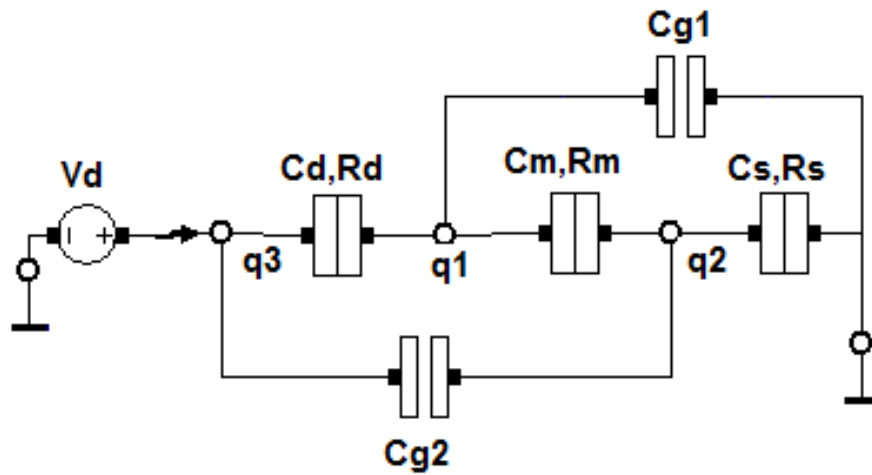


Fig 3.5: Schematic diagram SET block 3exhibiting NDC

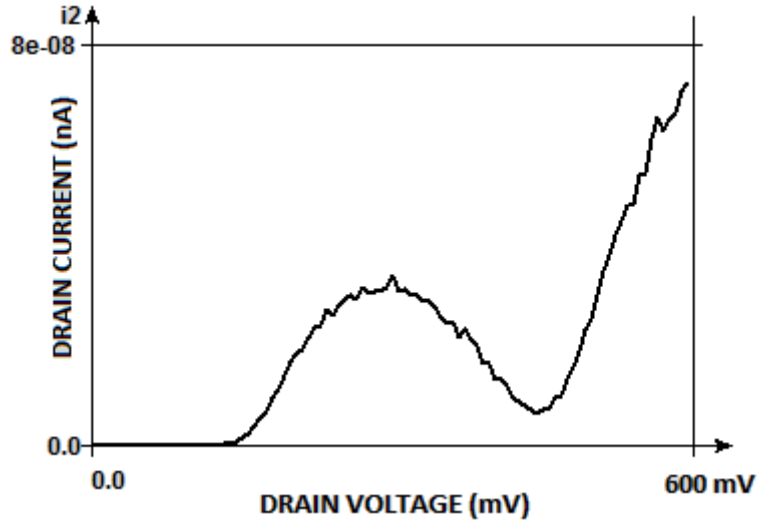


Fig 3.6: IV characteristic of SET block 3

The parameters are $C_d = C_m = C_s = 0.1 \text{ aF}$; $R_d = R_m = R_s = 1 \text{ M}\Omega$, $C_{g1} = C_{g2} = 0.54 \text{ aF}$. This design works at temperature of liquid nitrogen i.e. $T=77\text{K}$. The negative differential resistance clearly appears in the bias range of $0.25\text{--}0.4 \text{ V}$ above which current increases almost linearly as seen in Fig.3.6.

3.2 SRAM STRUCTURE USING NDC ELEMENTS

The general structure of static memory cell based on NDC elements is shown in Fig. 3.7, where a pair of NDC elements is arranged in a latch configuration, and the access to the cell is controlled by a pass transistor. The two load lines of NDCs produce two stable points, as shown in Fig. 3.8 where the voltages at both points represent different logic states. The logic “0” is stored in the memory cell at the low voltage state and logic “1” is stored at the high voltage state.

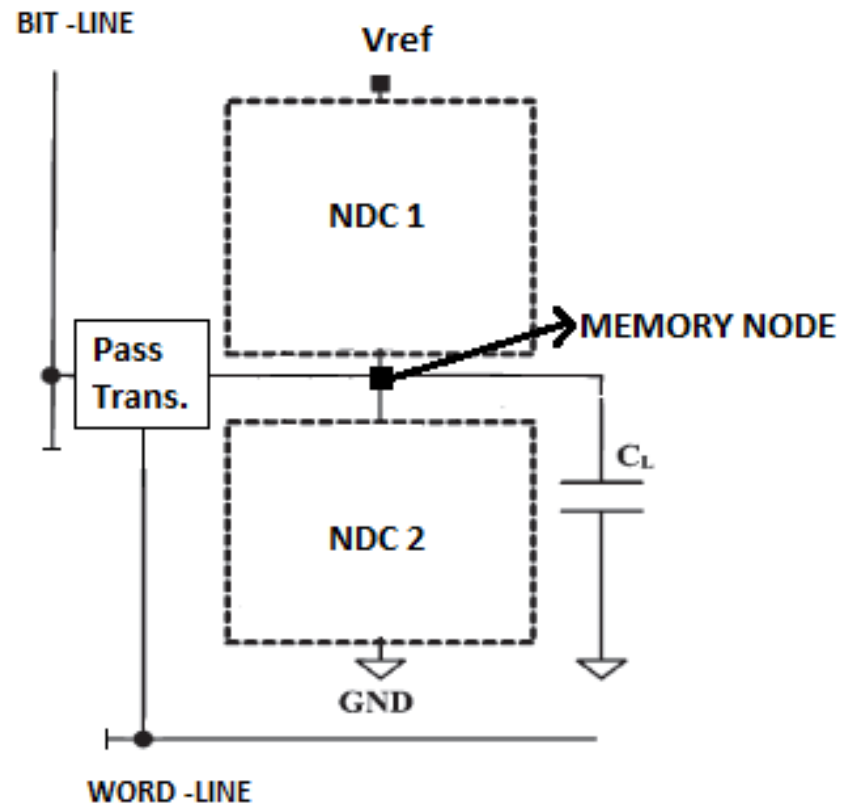


Fig. 3.7 Schematic Diagram for NDC based SET memory cell

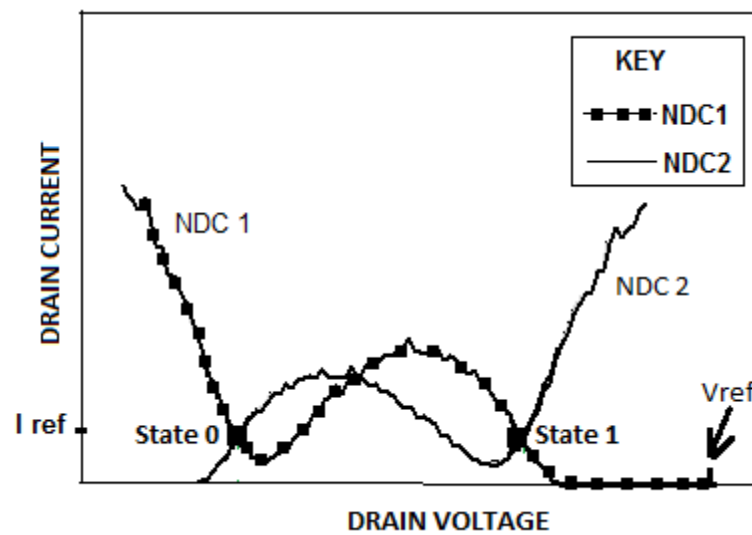
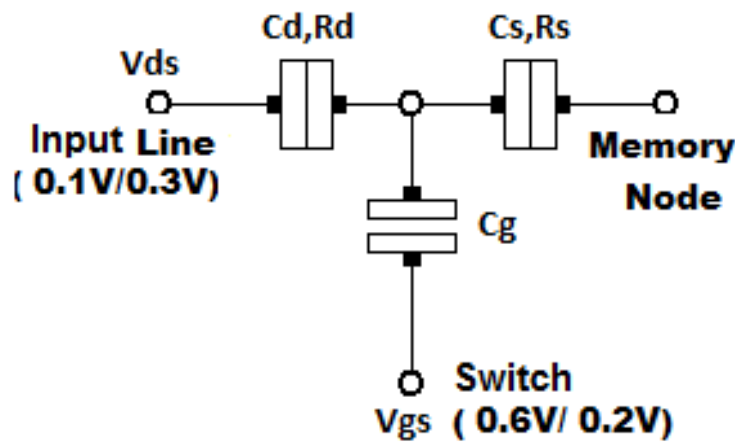


Fig. 3.8 Load lines of driving and load SET block.

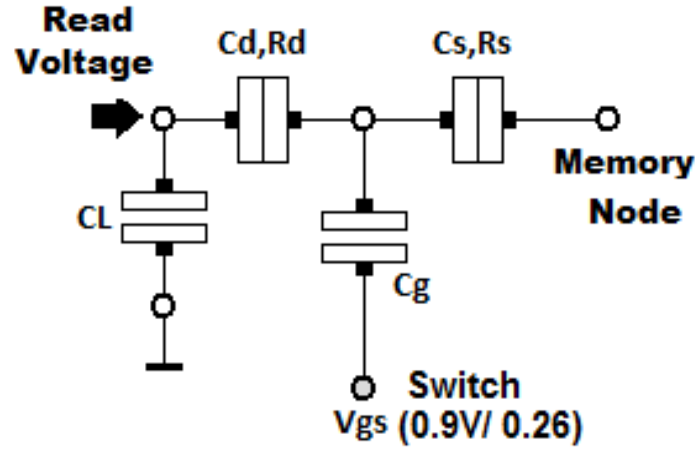
When the word line is low i.e. cell not selected, the output of the memory node shows one of two stable voltage levels, depending on the previously written bit-line level. To write data in memory cell, data is placed on the bit line and the word line is raised. The voltage of the memory node is then charged or discharged to a desired voltage level.

3.3 SET BASED READ/WRITE SWITCH

While single-electron memory can use a MOS transistor for read/write operation, we designed SET based read /write switches to be used with the static memory since no fabrication process is currently available for integrating MOSFET devices and SET-based NDC elements [5]. Further SET circuits are not able to co-simulate with MOSFETs in the Monte Carlo simulator SIMON. The Coulomb oscillation property of SETs is exploited to perform read or write operation, as shown in Fig. 3.9.



(a)

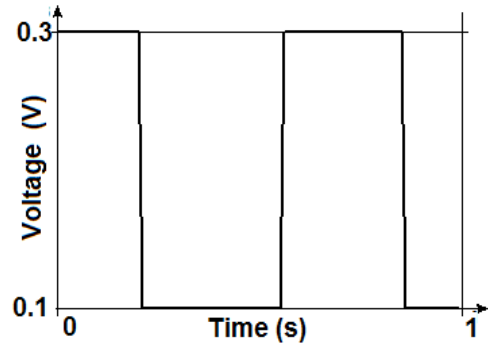


(b)

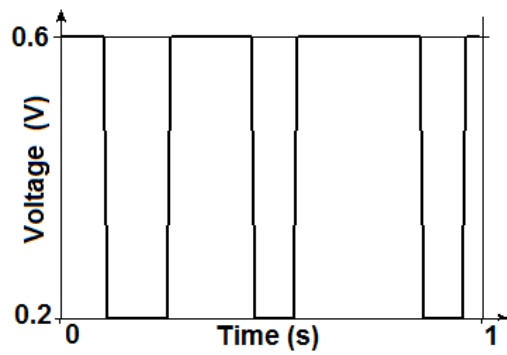
Fig. 3.9. SET transistors for (a) WRITE and (b) READ.

The voltage V_{gs} at which the drain current becomes zero turns the switch OFF and the voltage at which the current is maximum turns the switch ON. For the WRITE transistor of Fig. 3.9 (a) where $V_{ds} = 400\text{mV}$, $C_d = C_s = 0.1\text{aF}$, $R_d = R_s = 0.1\text{M}\Omega$, $C_g = 0.2\text{aF}$, the switch is on or off when $V_{gs} = 600\text{ mV}$ or 200mV , respectively. When the switch is on, the data is applied to the drain, and the corresponding voltage is written onto the memory node. The parameters for READ transistor of Fig. 3.9 (b) are: $C_d = C_s = 0.0667\text{aF}$, $R_d = R_s = 0.1\text{M}\Omega$, $C_g = 0.133\text{aF}$, and $C_L = 6\text{aF}$. The switch turns on or off when $V_{gs} = 900\text{mV}$ or 260mV , respectively. When the switch is ON, the corresponding voltage is sensed across the load capacitance C_L .

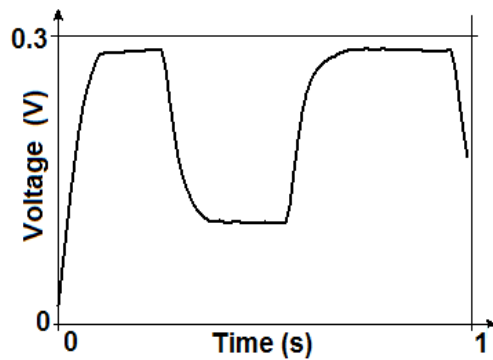
Fig. 3.10. shows the transient waveforms of the NDC based SET static memory cell for WRITE operation. When the WRITE switch is OFF (i.e., the voltage is low in Fig. 3.10(b)), the output of the memory node shows that the storage node latches to one of two stable voltage levels, depending on the previously written bit-line level.



(a)



(b)



(c)

Fig. 3.10. Memory write input and read output waveforms: (a) input data; (b) write switch; (c) voltage on memory node.

When the WRITE switch is ON (i.e., the voltage is high in Fig. 3.10(b)), the data is written from the input to the memory node. The READ operation is performed by

switching on the READ circuit, and the voltage stored at the memory node is measured across the load capacitance CL.

3.4 PERFORMANCE METRICS FOR SRAM STRUCTURE

We discuss the different performance metrics for single electron tunnelling (SET) based static memory cell design using unique negative differential conductance (NDC), with emphasis on power optimization. While various NDC elements have been proposed for memory cell design [3-6], they operate with different performance which includes the peak-to-valley current ratio (PVCR), operating temperature, reliability and standby power dissipation. For instance, the memory cell using an NDC element from [5] works at liquid nitrogen temperature (77K) with standby power of 6.6nW and PVCR of 4.7. An ideal memory cell using SET devices should work reliably at room temperature with a reasonable PVCR and low power dissipation

a) Peak- to- Valley Current Ratio (PVCR):

A key figure of merit for negative differential conductance characteristic is the ratio of the peak current to the valley current. The higher the value of PVCR, the better the NDR device is for a variety of circuit applications.

b) Temperature

The smaller the capacitance of the islands C and the larger the quantum confinement energy E_p , the larger is the Coulomb energy E_c and thus the larger is the operation temperature T. To allow single electron device operation, the Coulomb energy E_c must be the dominating energy in the system when compared to the thermal energy kT . A straightforward way to increase is to reduce spatial dimensions, because as

capacitance decreases and the quantum confinement energy increase. A good single electron device should work at room temperature (300 K), or at least at liquid nitrogen temperature (77 K).

c) Maximum Power

Because of small capacitances and the low number of electrons involved in charging and discharging, the power consumption of SET is usually orders of magnitudes smaller than that of conventional memories. Power consumption in static memory design depends on the drain voltage range of the NDC element. The smaller the voltage range the smaller is the reference voltage V_{ref} (see Fig 2). The standby power also depends upon the current require to hold the two stable states(I_{ref})

$$\text{Standby Power (W)} = V_{ref} * I_{ref}$$

However there is a trade-off between low standby power consumption and reliability.

d) Reliability

The difference in voltage between the low voltage state (logic '0') and the high voltage state (logic '1') is referred to as Logic margin. A higher value for logic margin makes the system more reliable. The larger difference in the stable states prevents incorrect logic errors caused due to external disturbances. Large logic margins results in large standby power consumption and hence a good compromise between the two must be obtained.

e) Background charge

This term denotes charged impurities located close to a quantum dot, as well as parasitic capacitances of other quantum dots which induce charges and often destroy the desired device function. One approach to avoid this problem is to find process

technologies which allow production of impurity free materials or materials where impurities accumulate in regions where they do not disturb device behaviour.

f) Circuit Complexity

The number of elements used in the design. The fewer the elements the more compact the design becomes and the more the memory density.

3.5 SRAM CELL BASED ON SINGLE ELECTRON NDC ELEMENTS

3.4.1 SRAM CELL A

In the first SRAM cell, we use the NDC element from section 3.2.3 proposed by Lee and Jeong. The schematic diagram for the SRAM cell is shown in Fig 3.11.

Table 3.1 Parameters for load and driving NDC Blocks

	Ct	Rt	Rm	Cg1	Cg2
NDC 1	0.1aF	1M Ω	1M Ω	0.54aF	0.54aF
NDC 2	0.1aF	1M Ω	1.5M Ω	0.54aF	0.54aF

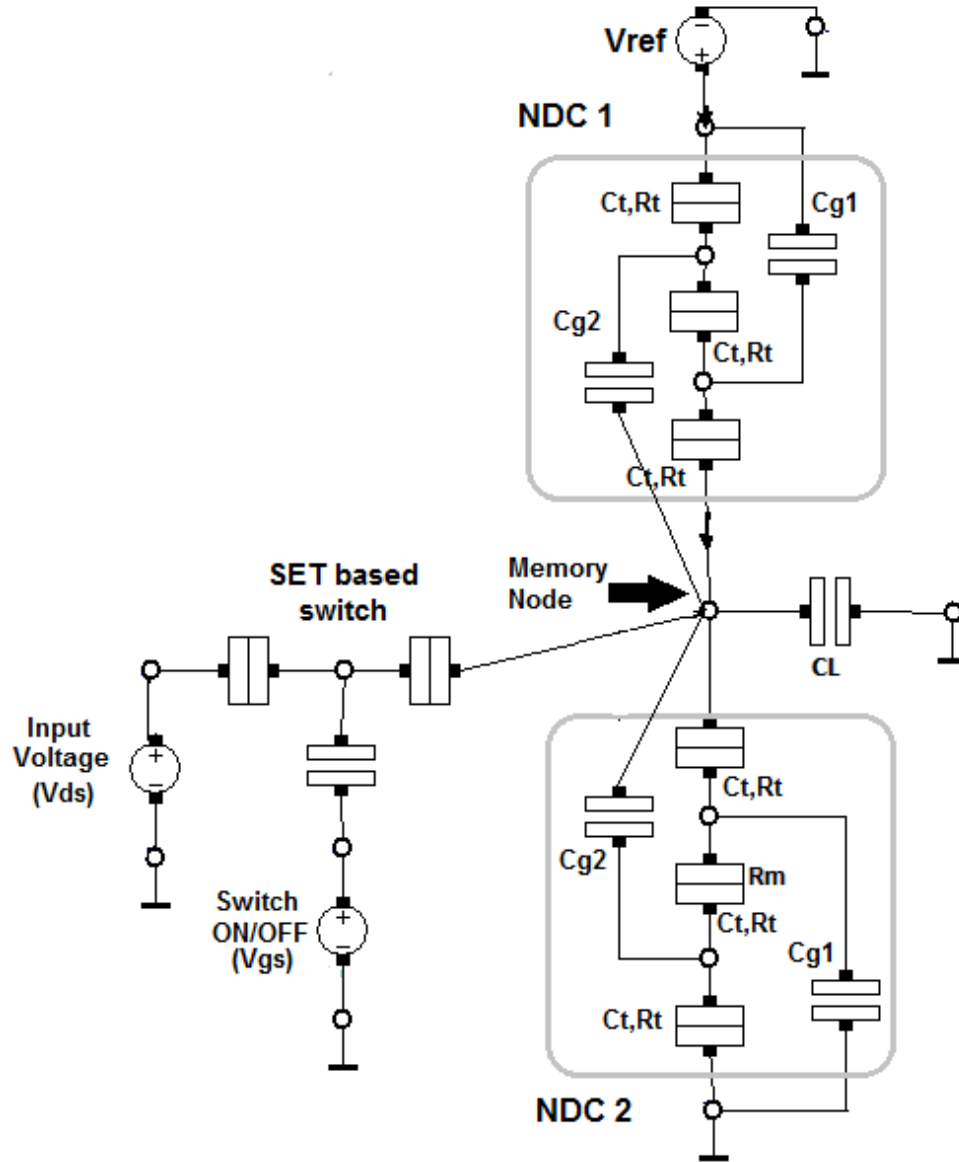


Fig. 3.11 Schematic of SRAM cell using NDC element from Section 3.2.3.

The parameters for the load and driving NDC locks are stated in the Table 3.1. The corresponding load line diagram, Fig. 3.12 shows that any voltage V_0 such that $0 < V_0 < 250$ applied to the memory node will eventually settle down at the low stable state, in this case 150mV, representing the logic 0 and any voltage V_1 such that $250 < V_1 < 400$

applied to the memory node will eventually settle down at the high stable state, in this case 400mV, representing the logic 1 .

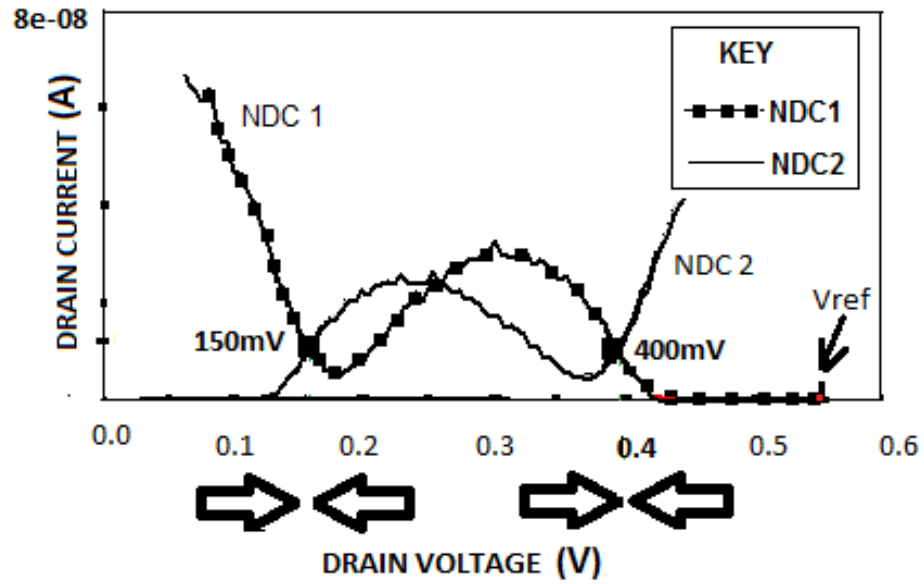


Fig. 3.12 Load Line diagram for SRAM cell using NDC element from Section 3.2.3

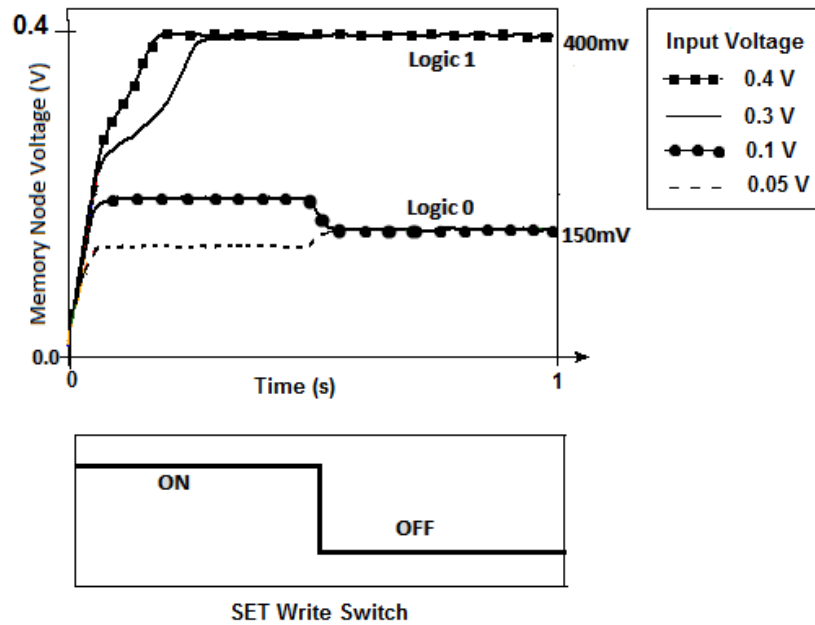


Fig. 3.13 Stable voltages are at 150mV and 400mV

Table 3.2 Logic state for different values of Input voltage Vds

Input voltage Vds (mV)	Memory Node Voltage (mV)		Logic
	Switch ON	Switch OFF	
50	130	150	Logic 0
200	190	150	
300	400	400	Logic1
400	400	400	

Table 3.3.Performance metrics for SRAM Cell of Fig 3.11

Operating Temperature (K)	No. of Elements	Standby power (nW)	Logic margin (mV)	P.V.C.R	Background charge dependent
77K	6 junctions + 4 capacitors	6.6	250	4.7	yes

The Table 3.2 and Fig 3.13 show the result of different input voltage Vds on memory node using the Monte Carlo simulator SIMON. The Table 3.3 shows that the SRAM cell has a standby power of 6.6 nW with a logic margin of 250mV and a P.V.C.R of 4.7.

3.4.2 SRAM CELL B

In the second SRAM cell, we use the NDC element from section 3.2.2 proposed by Mahapatra and Ionescu. The schematic diagram for the SRAM cell is shown in Fig 3.14

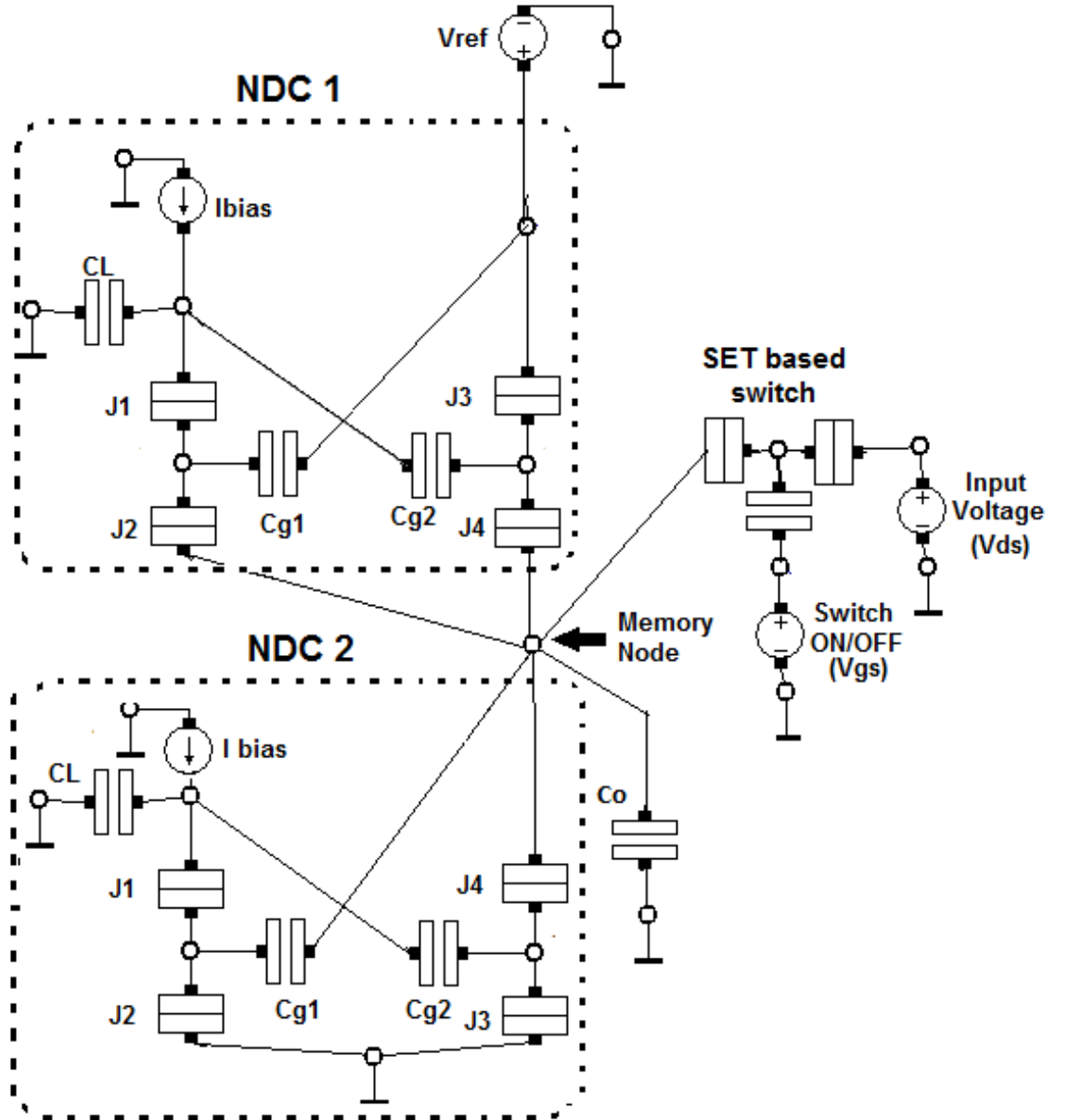


Fig. 3.14 Schematic of SRAM cell using NDC element from Section 3.2.2.

Table 3.4 Parameters for load and driving NDC Blocks

	C _j	R _j	C _{g1}	C _{g2}	I _{bias}	CL
NDC 1	0.15aF	1M Ω	0.5aF	0.5aF	10nA	2aF
NDC 2	0.15aF	1M Ω	0.5aF	0.5aF	10nA	2aF

Table 3.5 Logic state for different values of Input voltage V_{ds}

Switch V _{ds} (mV)	Memory Node Voltage (mV)		Logic
	Switch ON	Switch OFF	
50	100	110	Logic 0
100	110	110	
300	250	230	Logic1
400	270	230	

The parameters for the load and driving NDC locks are stated in the Table 3.4. Any voltage V₀ such that $0 < V_0 < 250$ applied to the memory node will eventually settle down at the low stable state representing the logic 0 i.e. 110mV and any voltage V₁ such that $250 < V_1 < 400$ applied to the memory node will eventually settle down at the high stable state representing the logic i.e. 230mV giving a logic margin of 120mV. The Table

3.5 and Fig 3.15 show the result of different input voltage V_{ds} on memory node using the Monte Carlo simulator SIMON.

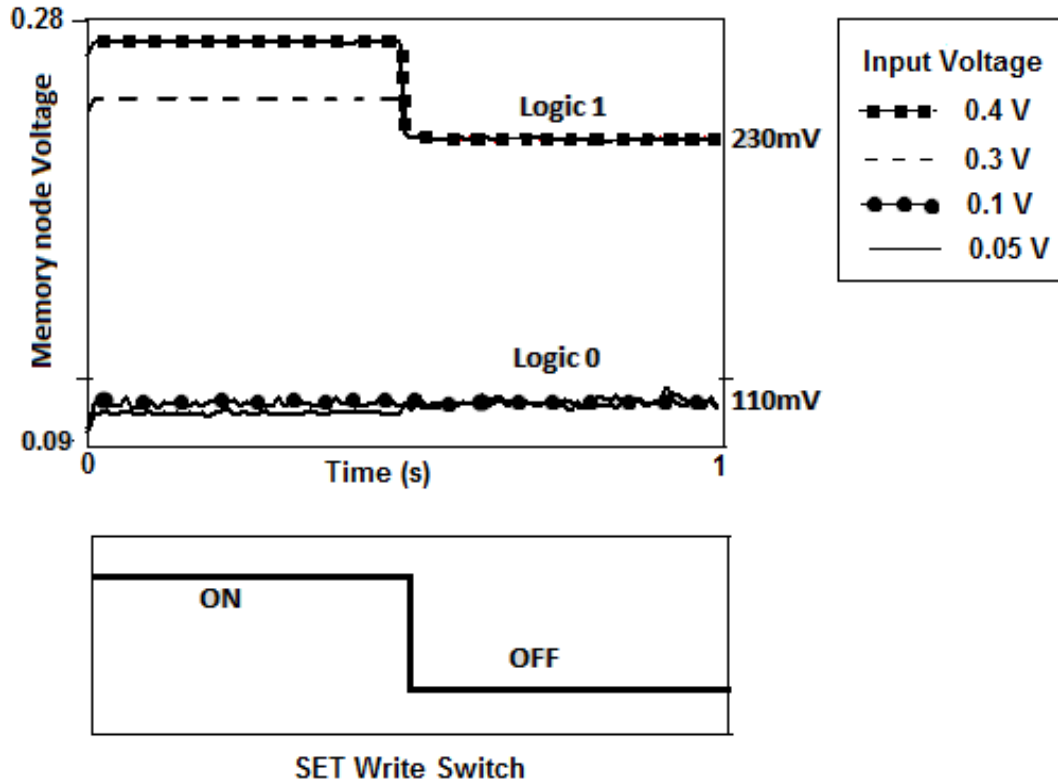


Fig. 3.15 Results from SIMON show that the two stable voltages are 110mV and 230mV

The Table 3.6 shows that the SRAM cell has a standby power of 2.4 nW for a V_{ref} of 300mV and a standby current of 7.9nA with a logic margin of 120 mV and a P.V.C.R of approximately 6.

Table 3.6.Performance metrics for SRAM Cell of Fig 3.14

Operating Temperature (K)	No. of Elements	Standby power (nW)	Logic margin (mV)	P.V.C.R	Background charge dependent
50K	8 jns + 6 cap	2.4	120	approx. 6	yes

Table 3.7.Performance metrics for SRAM Cell of Fig 3.11

Design	Operating Temperature (K)	No. of Elements	Standby power (nW)	Logic margin (mV)	P.V.C.R	Background charge dependent
SRAM cell 1	77K	6 jns + 4 cap	6.6	250	4.7	yes
SRAM cell 2	50K	8 jns + 6 cap	2.4	120	approx. 6	yes

Table 3.7 compares the SRAM cell A from Section 3.4.1 and SRAM cell B from Section 3.4.2 in terms of performance metrics. Even though SRAM cell B has lower standby power consumption, it is still not preferred over SRAM cell A since the operating temperature is much lower than the latter. So we try to optimize the SRAM cell B design for lower standby power consumption in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

STANDBY POWER OPTIMISATION TECHNIQUE FOR STATIC MEMORY CELL

As we have seen from earlier chapters that only a few SET elements having NDC characteristic have been proposed. Further no discussion have been made on parameter optimisation for low power memory application. The following chapter shows an optimisation technique for standby power optimisation.

4.1 OPTIMISATION METHODOLOGY

For convenience of discussions, we use the NDC element from [5] as an example (see Fig. 3.5) where the junction capacitance $C_d = C_m = C_s = 0.1\text{aF}$ and junction resistance $R_d = R_m = R_s = 1\text{M}\Omega$. When the value of gate capacitance C_g is chosen properly (anywhere between 0.4aF and 1.5aF), the negative differential conductance (NDC) characteristic can be observed.

When pair of NDC elements are connected in a latch configuration with the power supply of V_{ref} , their NDC curves intersect at two stable points which represent two different logic states (i.e. “0” and “1”) as discussed in section 3.2. By adjusting the reference voltage, each stable point can be designed to take place at the valley of the I–V characteristics of each NDC element thereby reducing the current required to hold the stable states. The results from the Monte Carlo simulation for current–voltage characteristics with different values of gate capacitance show that as the value of C_g

increases, the voltage V_{ref} needs to be reduced considerably for the two load lines of NDC elements to intersect at two stable points.

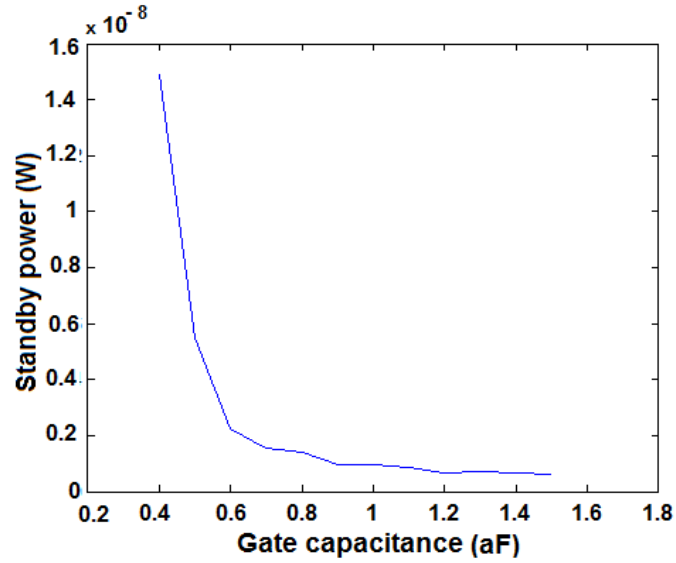


Fig. 4.1. Standby power vs. gate capacitance for memory cell using NDCs of [5].

The current required to hold both logic states is also reduced as the gate capacitance increases. Thus, the overall standby power goes down significantly with increase in C_g . Fig. 4.2 shows the standby power consumption as a function of gate capacitance.

The difference in voltage between the low voltage state (logic '0') and the high voltage state (logic '1') is referred to as *logic margin*. A higher value for logic margin makes the system more reliable. Fig. 4.3 shows the logic margin versus gate capacitance. According to our simulations using Monte Carlo simulator SIMON [7], the logic margin decreases slowly as the gate capacitance (C_g) increases, thereby gradually making the system sensitive to noise fluctuations. Therefore, as the value of C_g increases (up to 1.5aF), the standby power dissipation for the memory cell drastically decreases (down to

a minimum of 0.59nW) at the cost of reduced logic margin. Fig. 4.4 plots the standby power vs. logic margin of the cell. It can be seen from the figure that the standby power increases to 1.54nW for a corresponding logic margin value of 180 mV (when $C_g = 0.7\text{aF}$ with power supply of 0.39V), beyond which the power increases considerably with only a little improvement in reliability.

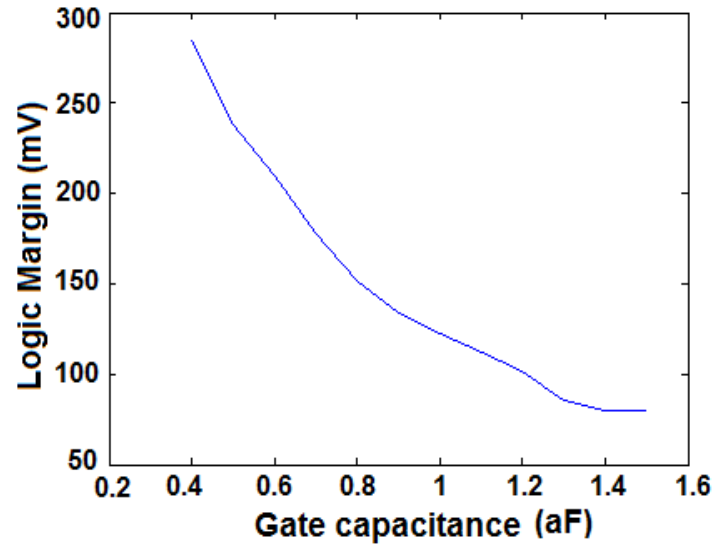


Fig. 4.2. Logic margin vs. gate capacitance for memory cell using NDCs of [5].

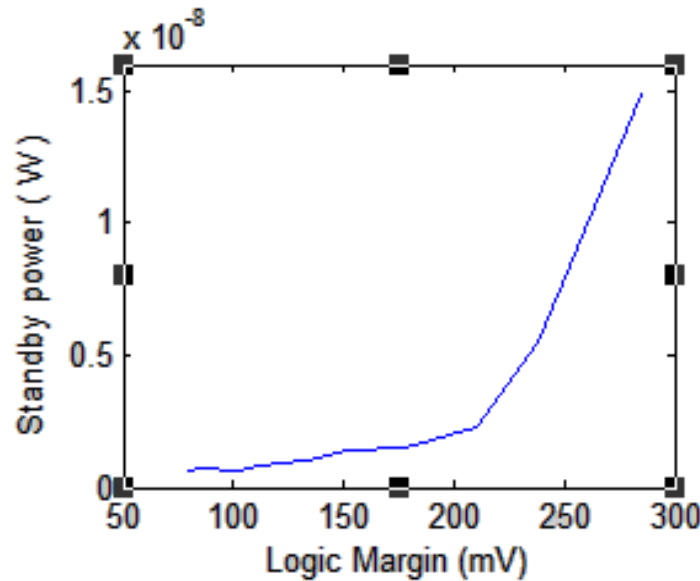


Fig. 4.3. Standby power vs. logic margin for memory cell using NDCs of [5].

Thus, for the best trade-off between power and reliability, C_g was set to 0.7aF with over 4x power improvement over the one of [5]. For the gate capacitance $C_g=0.7\text{aF}$ and reference voltage V_{ref} of 0.39V, the two stable voltage levels stay approximately at the values of 106 mV and 286 mV with the current of 3.94 nA.

4.2 EFFECT OF TEMPERATURE AND RANDOM BACKGROUND CHARGE

As the temperature increases, the SET sub threshold slope decreases due to the smearing of the Coulomb blockade. Consequently, the NDC characteristics get deteriorated, resulting in an increase in the current required to hold the logic states, which contributes to the increased standby power consumption.

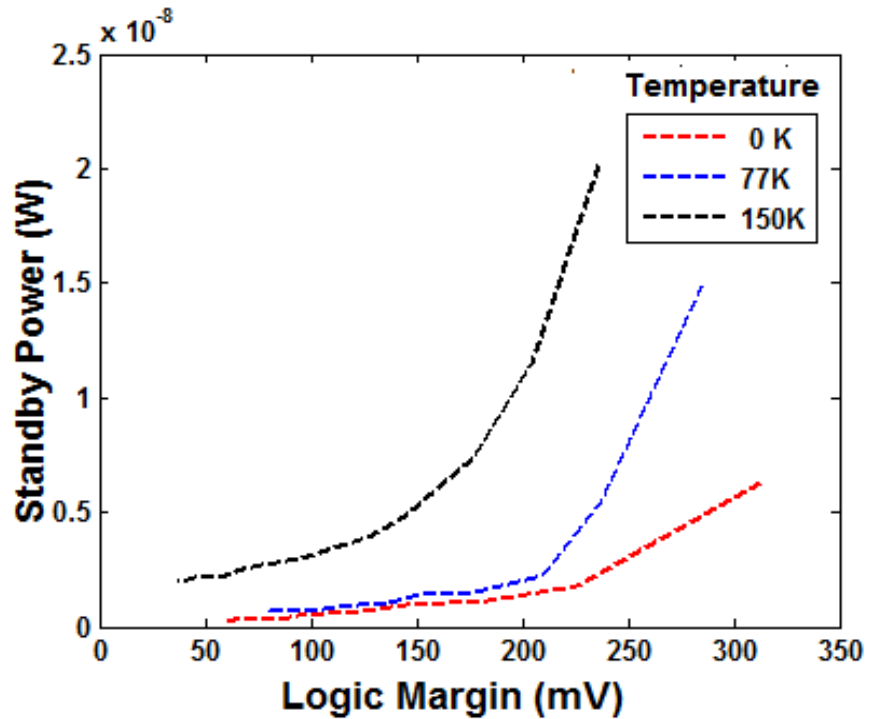


Fig. 4.4 Logic margin vs. standby power at different temperatures

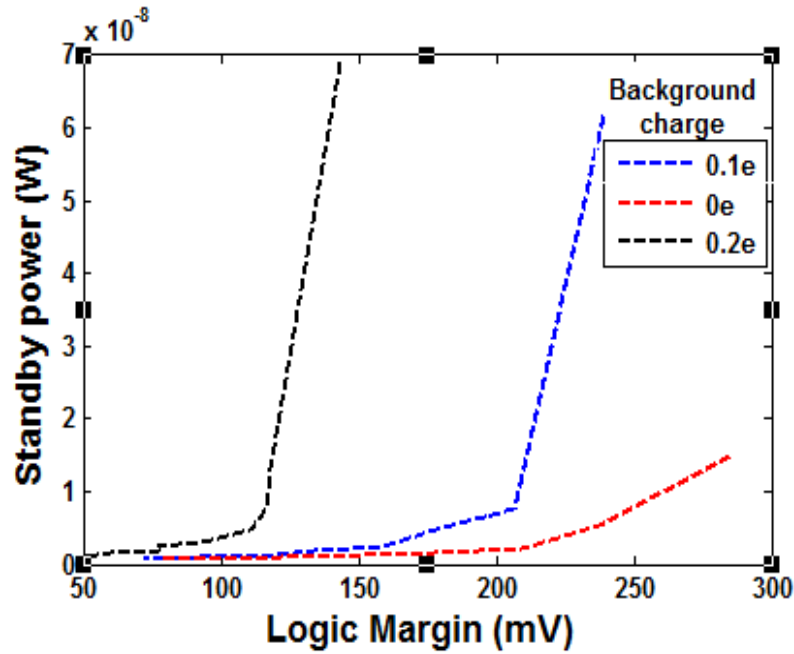


Fig. 4.5 Logic margin vs. standby power at different background charges.

Fig. 4.5 demonstrates the effect of temperature on the standby power versus logic margin curves. It can be seen that as the temperature increases, the standby power consumption begins to shoot up at lower values of logic margin (corresponding to higher values of C_g). Fig. 4.6 illustrates the effect of background charges on the standby power versus logic margin curves. Similar to the temperature effect, the background charges also raise the standby power consumption for a given logic margin.

The effects of temperature can be reduced by further reducing the capacitance which is done by reducing the size of the island to below 10 nm. New material systems which have lower dielectric permittivity or exhibit higher quantum confinement energy due to their reduced effective mass may reduce this spatial restriction noticeable. Unfortunately, new materials very often require new processes which have to be

developed and studied. This takes a lot of time and research effort. Hence the economical factor limits this possibility drastically. For reducing the effects of random background charge we need to find process technologies which allow production of impurity free materials or materials where impurities accumulate in regions where they are not disturbing device behaviour.

CHAPTER V

A NOVEL SET BASED ELEMENT WITH MULTIPLE PEAK NDC

Traditional computer systems use binary logic for their operations. Representing data in a MVL system is more effective than the binary-based representation because MVL storage allows storing more bits of information per memory cell thereby increasing its data processing capability per unit chip area. It also improves the efficiency of arithmetic operations by reducing the number of operations required to implement particular mathematical functions. The number of interconnections can be significantly reduced, with major impact in all design parameters. Lesser area dedicated to interconnections leads to more compact and shorter interconnections lowering the interconnect switched capacitance, and hence lowering the global power dissipation.

Currently MV logic is used in some top EDA tools as mathematical technique to minimize binary logic E.g. Synopsys, Cadence, Lattice. Many researchers expect that new optical, DNA and quantum computers that will arrive before year 2020 will use MV logic. An important part of this effort will be the development of MVL Nano scale memory systems that can store the ternary (base 3) or quaternary (base 4) numbers that will be used by MVL arithmetic circuits. In this chapter we introduce a new SET architecture exhibiting multiple NDC peaks in the VI characteristic. Further its application as a low power static memory cell is presented.

5.1 MULTIPLE PEAK NDC ARCHITECTURE

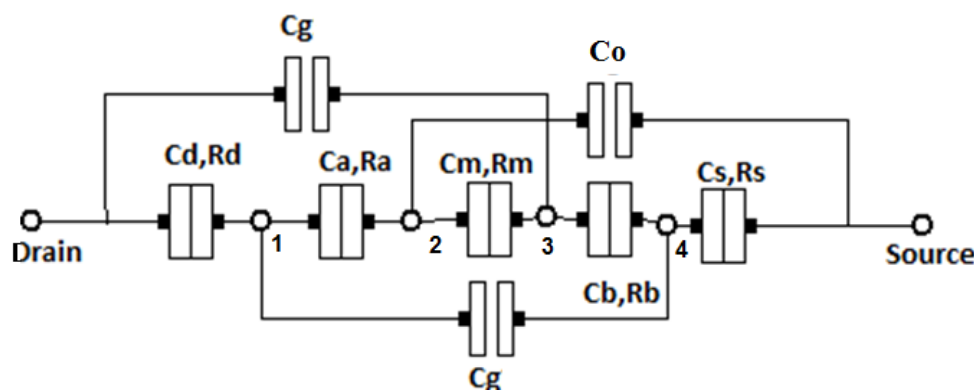


Fig. 5.1. Proposed multiple peak Set based NDC architecture

Our proposed system consists of four islands, positioned as depicted in Fig. 5.1, between the source and the drain electrodes. The islands 1 and 3 form two single electron transistors, SET 1 and SET 2, allowing a current to flow between voltage source and ground through the island 4, which acts as a single electron box (SEB). The capacitors C_g and C_o are capacitances coupled with islands and C_d , C_a , C_m , C_b and C_s are the capacitances of tunnel junctions. Considering all tunnel junction capacitance of the four island array to be equal to C_t , multiple NDC peaks are observed when $C_g/C_t=2$ and $C_o=2C_g$. Here two additional Coulomb Blockade (CB) gaps are seen in the interval of $[V_2, V_3]$ and $[V_4, V_5]$ called the secondary coulomb blockade SCB 1 and SCB 2, in addition to the primary CB gap at $[0, V_1]$. The origin of the additional gaps is attributed to the formation of the stationary charge configurations (SCC) which traps electrons thereby blocking the flow of electric current resulting in the negative differential slope.

According to the orthodox theory, the tunneling rate across the tunnel junction is given as follows:

$$\Gamma_j(V, \{n\} \rightarrow \{n'\}) = \frac{1}{e^2 R_j} \frac{\Delta F}{1 - e^{-\frac{\Delta F}{k_B T}}} \quad (1)$$

Where e is the electronic charge, R_j is the tunnel resistance of the j th junction, T is the temperature, and ΔF is the change in the free energy of the system when an electron has tunneled through the tunnel junction with the tunneling resistance R_j with the electron configuration change from $\{n\}$ to $\{n'\}$, where $\{n\}$ is the charge configuration on islands. A SCC is a local minimum of the free energy in the configuration space. That is, the free energy change ΔF , due to the transition from the SCC to its adjacent configuration, is greater than zero making the tunneling process energetically unfavorable so that the electrons get trapped and consequently the SCB 1 is established.

5.2 MECHANISM FOR MULTIPLE NDC PEAKS

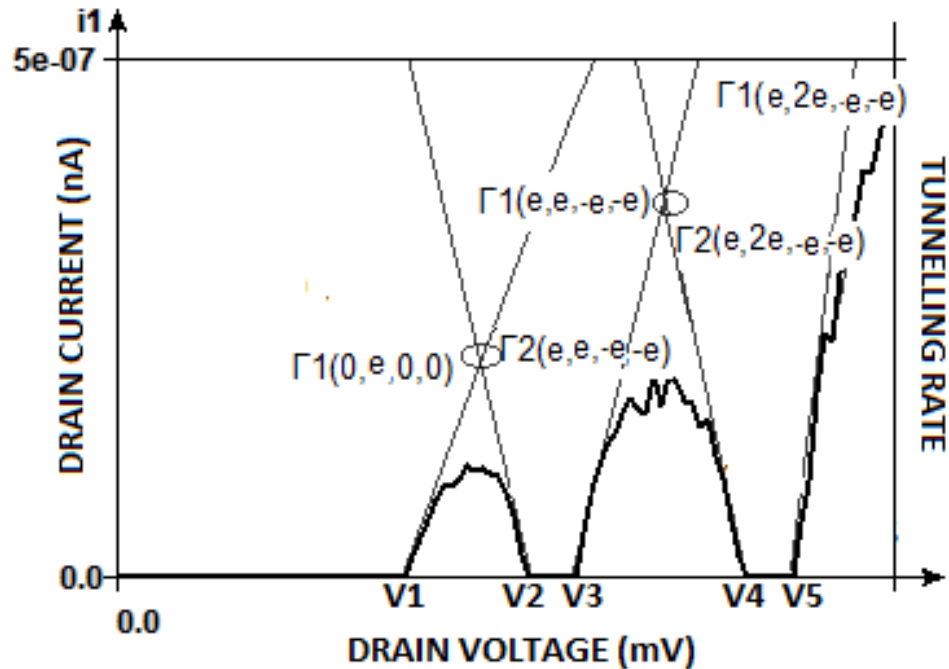


Fig. 5.2 I–V characteristics for the multiple peak SET block and comparisons of tunnel rates. The solid and dashed lines are the I–V curves and tunnel rates, respectively.

The mechanism for NDC in this device structure is shown in Fig. 5.2 and can be described as follows. At low drain voltage (V_d), where V_d is less than V_1 , the entrance of the electron or hole through each side tunnel junction is restricted due to Coulomb blockade effects. In this case, the electron configuration of islands is $\{0, 0, 0, 0\}$. As V_d is increased above V_1 , a single hole enters through the drain tunnel junction onto the ‘island 1’ causing the tunneling process $\{0,0,0,0\} \rightarrow \{1,0,0,0\} \rightarrow \{0,1,0,0\}$ almost instantly due to high electron hopping rate at junction 2. The stationary configuration SCB1 corresponding to $\{1, 1,-1,-1\}$ is reached eventually. The process which leads to the break-up of SCB1 is achieved by introducing another hole into the array giving rise to the charge configuration $\{2, 1,-1,-1\}$ which is the offset to the formation of the stationary configuration SCB2 corresponding to $\{1, 2,-1,-1\}$. The SCB 2 persists in the voltage interval $V_4 < V_d < V_5$. If the electron configuration changes from to, where is the charge configuration on islands then each tunneling process with increasing voltage is as follows.

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{A: } n_A &= \{0,0,0,0\} \rightarrow n_{A'} = \{1,0,0,0\} \\
\text{B: } n_B &= \{1,0,0,0\} \rightarrow n_{B'} = \{0,1,0,0\} \\
\text{C: } n_C &= \{0,1,0,0\} \rightarrow n_{C'} = \{0,1,0,-1\} \\
\text{D: } n_D &= \{0,1,0,-1\} \rightarrow n_{D'} = \{0,1,-1,0\} \\
\text{E: } n_E &= \{0,1,-1,0\} \rightarrow n_{E'} = \{1,1,-1,0\} \\
\text{F: } n_F &= \{1,1,-1,0\} \rightarrow n_{F'} = \{1,1,-1,-1\} \\
\text{G: } n_G &= \{1,1,-1,-1\} \rightarrow n_{G'} = \{2,1,-1,-1\} \\
\text{H: } n_H &= \{2,1,-1,-1\} \rightarrow n_{H'} = \{1,2,-1,-1\}.
\end{aligned}$$

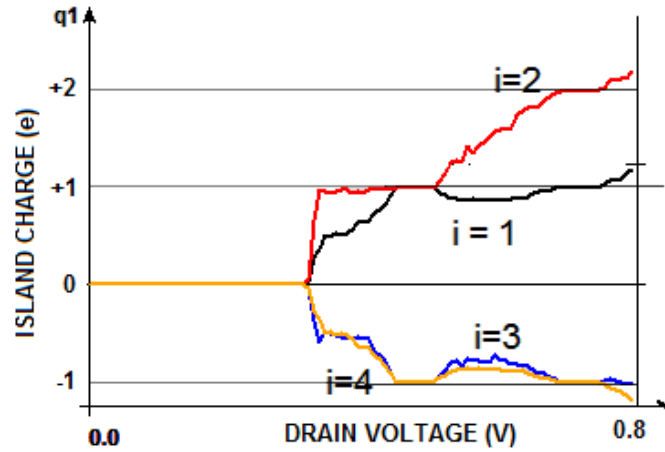


Fig. 5.3 Probable electron charge configuration

Fig 5.3 shows the probable electron charge configurations. The configurations n_B , n_D , n_E , n_F , n_H are reached by very fast tunneling processes which take place almost simultaneously and hence are not visible in the figure.

5.3 EFFECT OF TEMPERATURE AND BACKGROUND CHARGE

The results of the Monte Carlo simulations for current–voltage characteristics for several values of temperatures are shown in Fig. 5.4.

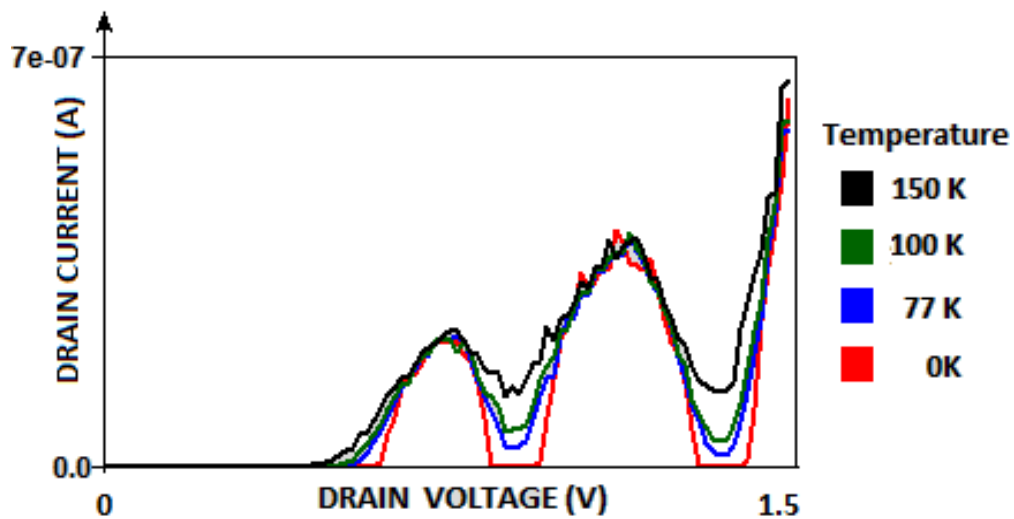


Fig. 5.4 Effect on temperature on the multiple peaks NDC

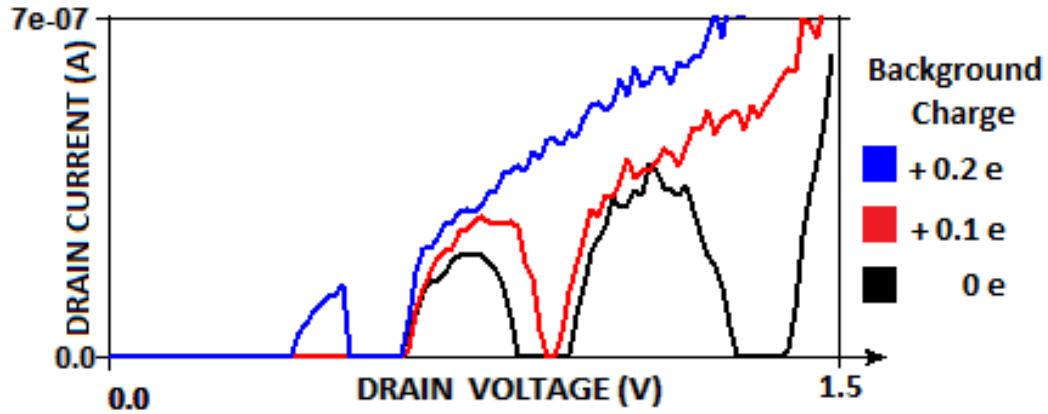


Fig. 5.5 Effect on Random background charge on the multiple peak NDC

We see that the peak-to-valley current ratio in the NDC characteristics is reduced as temperature increases. This is due to the smearing of the SC blockade at high temperature. Fig 5.5 shows the effect of background charge on V-I characteristics. As we see the design is sensitive to background charge. Most SETs suffer from major stability problems which are common to other candidates such as nanowire transistors, nanotube (CNT), RTD, NEMS and molecular devices since their smaller dimensions increase sensitivity to fluctuation such as higher temperature and random background charge.

5.4 A NOVEL MVL SRAM CELL BASED ON SINGLE ELECTRON DEVICES

The schematic diagram of the multiple peak SET static memory cell is shown in Fig. 5.6, which is similar to the resonant tunneling diode (RTD)/heterojunction field-effect transistor (HFET) static memory cell [19]. However, the significant change in this circuit is the replacement of the vertical RTD with the SET-based NDC block, which use the single electron charging effect. Our static memory cell consists of a pair of SET blocks in a latch configuration and a SET based switch, which controls the access to the cell. We

have set the background charge to be zero, assuming that a suitable fabrication process could control the background charge.

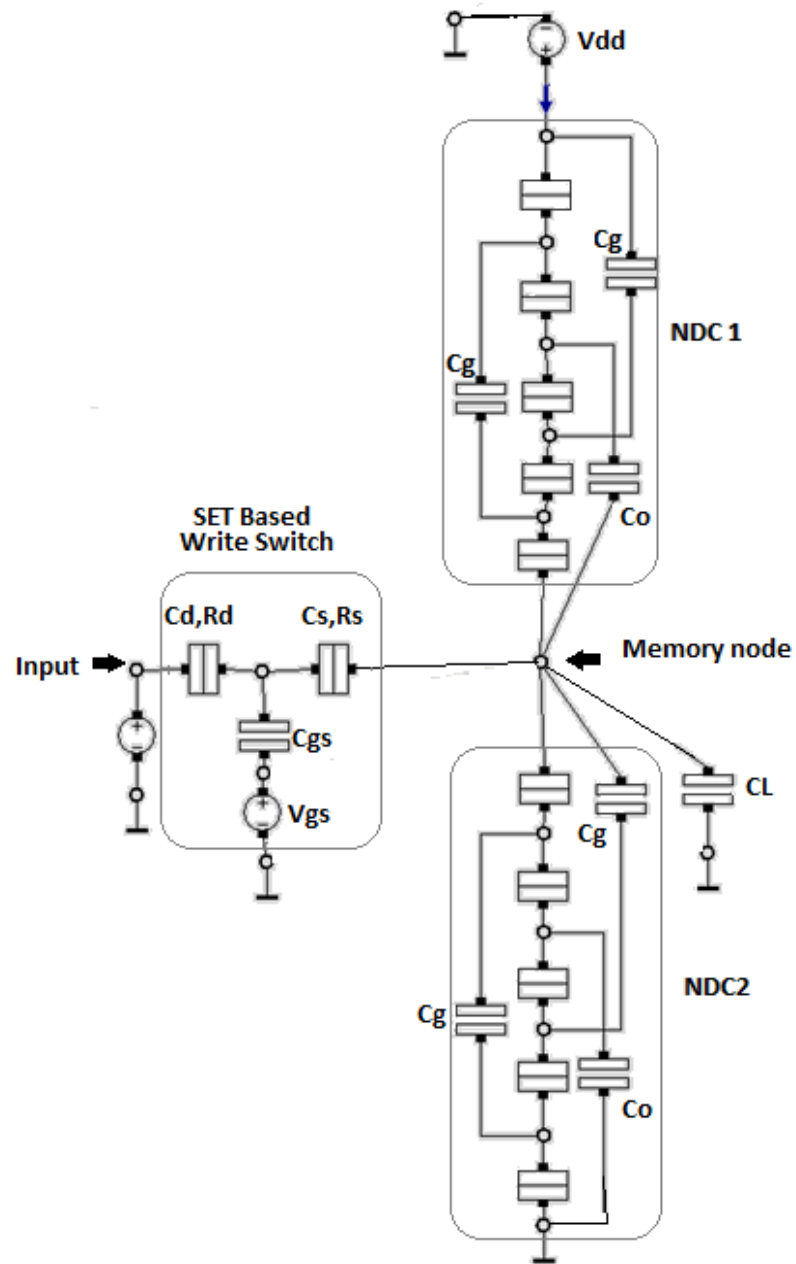


Fig. 5.6 MVL SRAM memory cell schematic

One-bit data is stored in the latch, which is constructed from a pair of the SET blocks of which parameters are optimized for proper memory operations. The set of parameters used in Fig. 5.6 is summarized in Table 5.1(a) and (b). The voltage of the SET block latch was biased at 1 V. Fig. 5.7 shows the load-line diagram with three stable points at temperature $T=0K$. The logic “0” is stored in the memory cell at the first low voltage state, logic “1” is stored in the memory cell at the second low voltage state and the logic “2” is stored at the high voltage state.

Table 5.1. (a) Parameters for the multiple peak static memory cell (b) Parameters for write switch

(a)

SET Block	Ct (aF)	Rt (M Ω)	Cg (aF)	Co (aF)
NDC 1	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.8
NDC 2	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.8

(b)

Cd (aF)	Rd (M Ω)	Cs (aF)	Rs (M Ω)	Cgs (aF)	Vgs(mV)	
					ON	OFF
0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	600	200

By adjusting the supply voltage, each stable point can be designed to take place at the valley of the I–V characteristics of each SET block. The current required to hold the state of the memory can be optimized by the bias voltage of the latch. For the bias of 1 V, the

three stable voltage levels exist approximately at 0.3V, 0.5 V and 0.7V with the current of 15nA, 124nA and 16.5nA respectively.

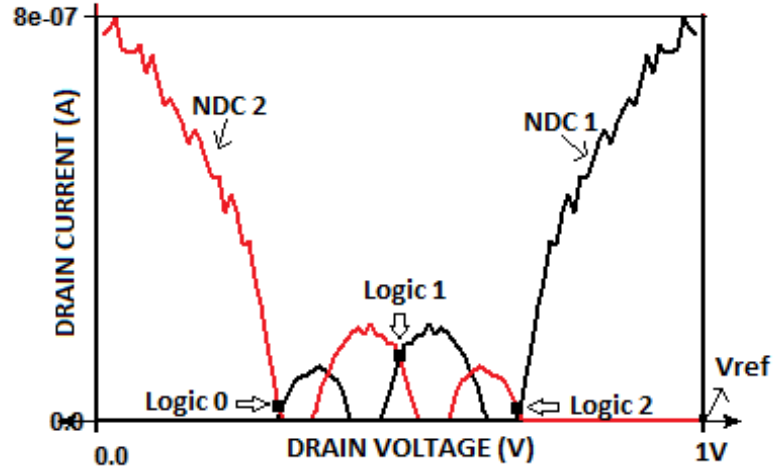


Fig. 5.7. Load line diagram for memory cell using two peak NDC element for $C_t = 0.2$ with ratio $C_g/C_t = 2$ at $T = 0K$.

Fig. 5.8 shows the transient waveforms of the multiple peak SET static memory cell of Fig. 5.6. When the cell is not selected (switch OFF), the output of the memory node shows that the storage node latches to one of three stable voltage levels (0.3, 0.5 or 0.7), depending on the previously written input. Here 0.1V corresponds to logic 0, 0.7V corresponds to Logic 1 and 1.1 corresponds to logic 2 respectively at the input line. To write data in memory cell, corresponding voltage is placed on the input line and the write switch is turned ON. When the switch is turned off the voltage at the memory node, settles down at stable voltage level 1 and the stable state is maintained with the average standby power of 52nW with an average logic margin of 197 mV approximately. Therefore, the multiple peak SET static memory element needs to be optimized for low standby power consumption.

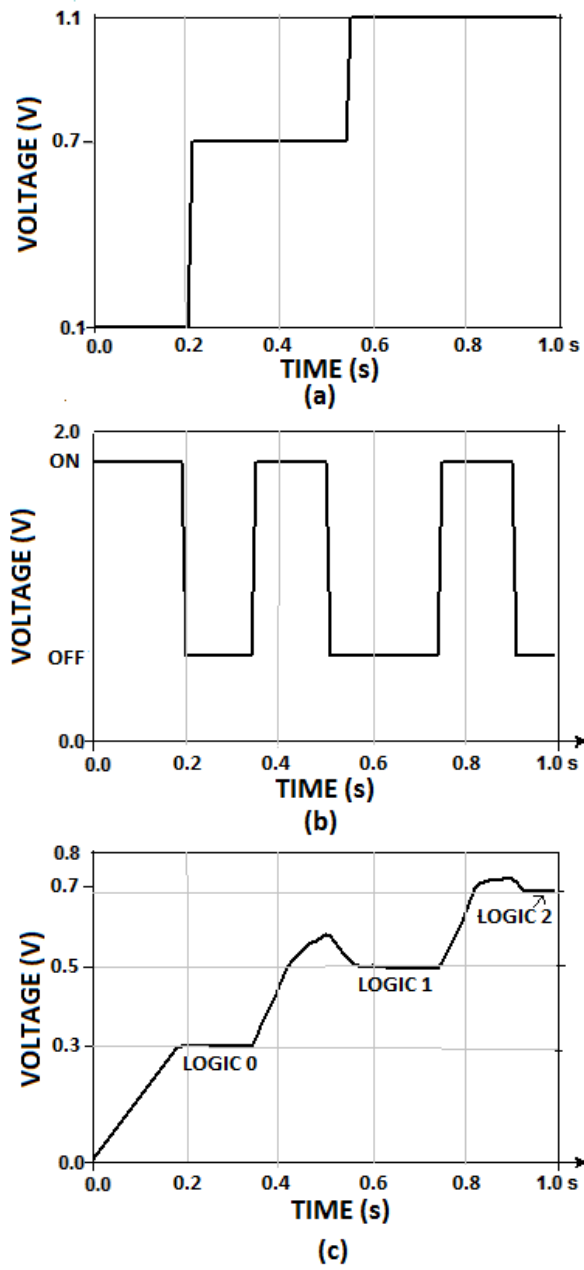


Fig.5.8 Memory write input and read output waveforms: (a) input data; (b) write switch;
(c) voltage on memory node

5.5 STANDBY POWER OPTIMISATION OF MVL SRAM CELL

The Fig 5.9 shows the standby power consumption vs. logic margin for different values of C_t at temp 0K for the ratio $C_g/C_t = 2$. As the value of C_t is reduced from 1aF to 0.1aF the standby power consumption increases drastically along with an increase in logic margin. We also see in Fig 5.10 that for a fixed value of C_t (say 0.2) and $C_g/C_t = 2$, the increase in temperature further compromises the standby power consumption drastically. This is due to the fact that an increase in temperature raises the valley current thereby reducing the PVCR. By Monte Carlo method of simulation we find that for improving the power consumption at temperatures up to 77 K the ratio of C_g/C_t must be equal to 3.

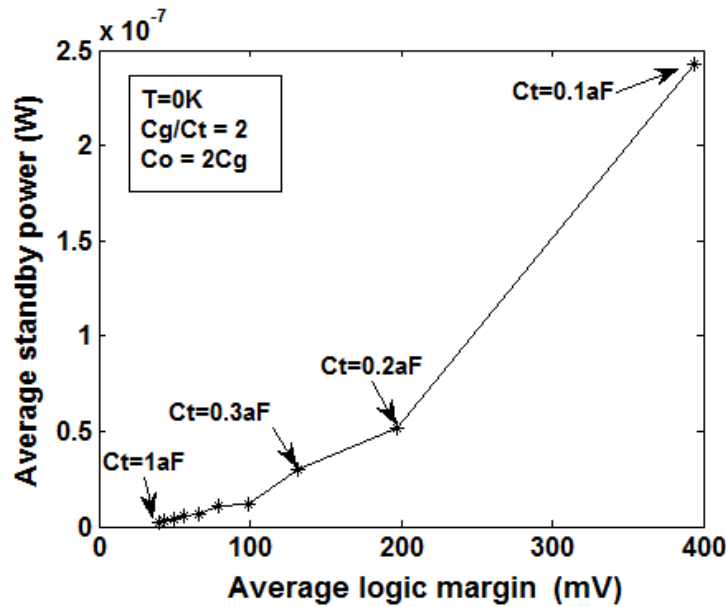


Fig.5.9 Standby power vs. Logic margin at different values of C_t for the ratio $C_g/C_t = 2$ at $T=0K$

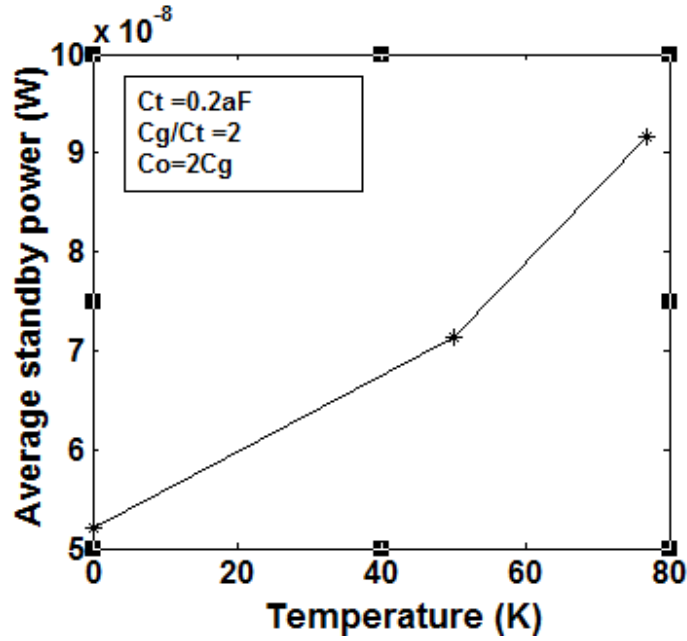


Fig.5.10 Standby power vs. temperature at $C_t=0.2\text{aF}$ for $C_g/C_t=2$

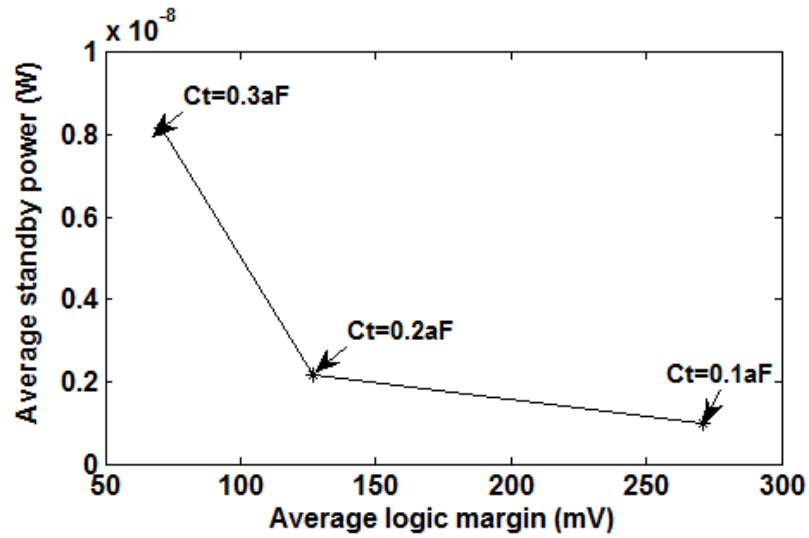


Fig. 5.11. Standby power vs. Logic margin at different values of C_t for the ratio $C_g/C_t=3$ at $T=77\text{K}$.

Fig. 5.11 show the power consumption vs. logic margin at different values of C_t for the ratio $C_g/C_t=3$ at 77 K. We see that at temperature 77 K, as the value of C_t decreases the standby power consumption improves along with increase in logic margin. This is

because as the island size is reduced i.e. C_t is reduced; the device can operate at higher temperature. Therefore at temperature 77 K, we optimize our parameter using the ratio $C_g/C_t = 3$ and $C_o = 2C_g$. The parameters for the NDC blocks of Fig.5.4(a) are $C_t = 0.1\text{aF}$, $C_g = 0.3\text{aF}$, $C_o = 0.6\text{aF}$.

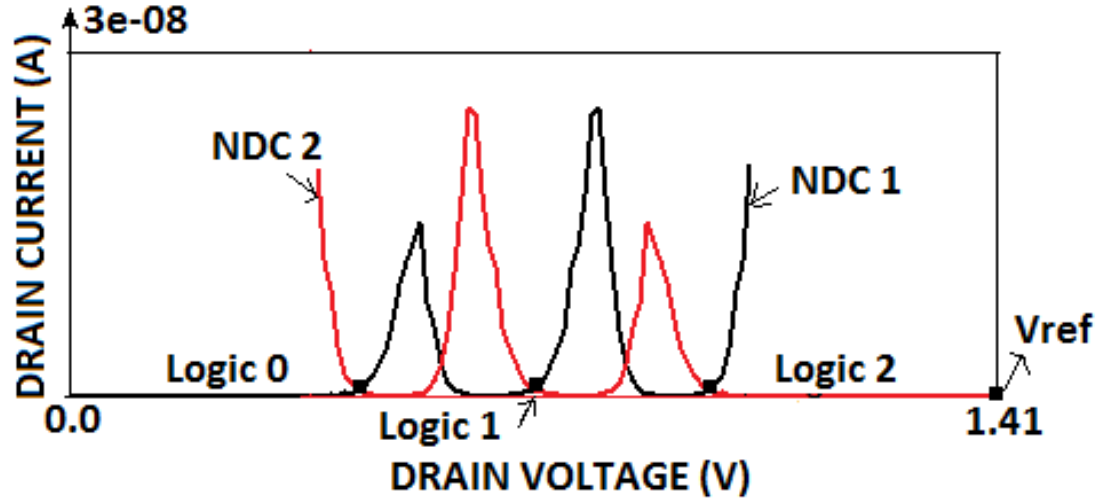


Fig. 5.12. Load line diagram for memory cell using two peak NDC element for $C_t = 0.1\text{aF}$ with ratio $C_g/C_t = 3$ at $T = 77\text{K}$.

The Fig 5.12 shows the load line diagram for the optimized MVL SRAM design. For V_{ref} of 1.41V the stable voltages are at 437mV for logic '0', 707 mV for 'logic '1' and 979 mV for logic '2' respectively with an average logic margin of 270 mV. The average current required to hold the three states is $6.99\text{E-}10$ resulting in an average standby power consumption of 0.98nW.

5.6 A NOVEL QUATERNARY SRAM CELL

The parameters of the NDC architecture of Fig.5.1 can also be optimized to have three NDC peaks in the V-I characteristics as shown in Fig 5.13. This three peak NDC block can be used to build a quaternary memory cell with four stable states as shown in Fig. 5.6.

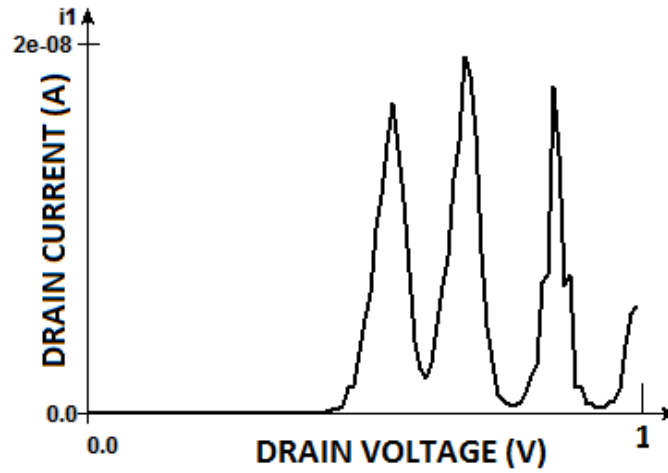


Fig. 5.13. IV characteristic for three peak NDC element used in Quaternary memory cell

Table 5.2. Parameters for the Quaternary memory NDC elements

SET Block	Ct (aF)	Rt (M Ω)	Rd(M Ω)	Cg (aF)	Co (aF)
NDC 1	0.1	0.1	1	0.3	1.3
NDC 2	0.1	0.1	1	0.3	1.3

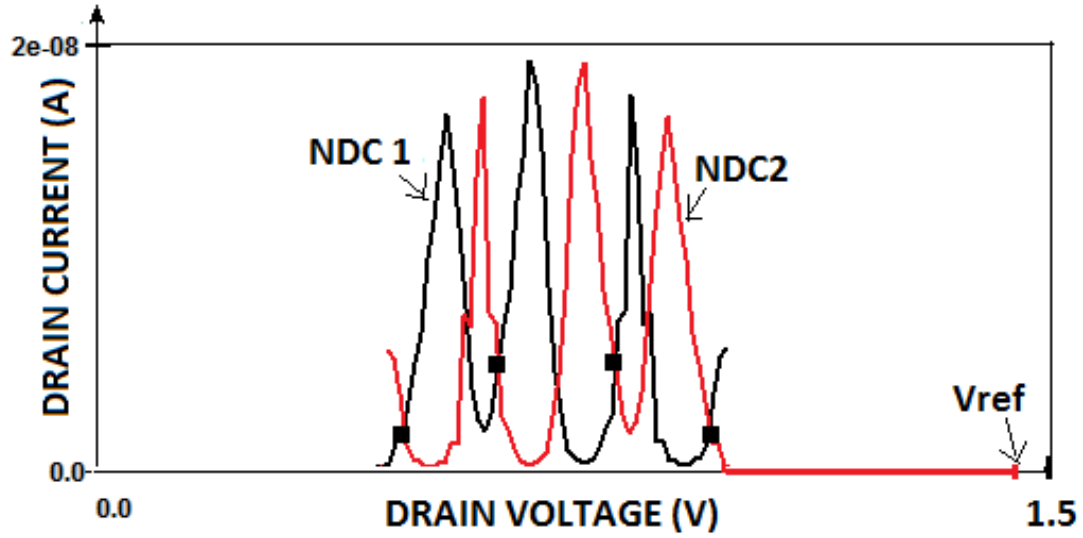


Fig.5.14. Load-lines for load and driving SET blocks for the Quaternary memory cell

The parameters for both NDC blocks for obtaining three peaks are given in the Table 5.2 considering $C_t = C_d = C_a = C_m = C_b = C_s$ and $R_t = R_a = R_m = R_b = R_s$. The Fig. 5.14 shows load line diagram for the loading and driving SET blocks of the memory cell at $T=77K$. The four stable voltages representing Logics 0,1,2,3 are at 0.48V, 0.63V, 0.82V and 0.97V respectively with an average standby current of 3.5nA. The quaternary memory cell consumes an average standby power of 5nW with an average logic margin of 160mV.

CHAPTER VI

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The comparisons of our proposed two peak SET static memory cell and our three peak NDC based SET static memory cell with available SET SRAM cells are summarized in Table 6.1. The SET/MOSFET proposed in [5], can store only binary values with a large standby current of 10nA and a Vref of 5.5V. The memory cell thereby consumes a standby power of 5.5nW with a logic margin of 250mV. With further standby power optimization in section 4.1, the best trade-off between power and reliability was obtained by setting the value of gate capacitance to 0.7aF.

Table 6.1 Comparison of SET based SRAM cell

Design	SET/MOSFET [5]	Proposed 2 peak	Proposed 3 peak
Operating Temperature(K)	77	77	77
Avg. Standby Power (nW)	5.5	0.98	5.06
Logic states	0,1	0,1,2	0,1,2,3
No of elements	6 jns+ 4 cap	10 jns + 6 cap	10 jns + 6 cap
Avg. Logic Level difference (mV)	250	270	160

For a reference voltage V_{ref} of 0.39V, the two stable voltage levels stay approximately at the values of 106 mV and 286 mV with the current of 3.94 nA. However this memory cell could still had only two stable states enabling is use only in binary memory cell. Our proposed ternary memory cell performs better at the same operating temperature of 77K. Due to its two peak NDC characteristic it allows an additional stable state making it suitable in the design of ternary memory. This makes the memory more compact by reducing the interconnections. A reduction in the inter-connect switched capacitance also lowers the global power dissipation.

Table 6.2 Comparison of different SRAM cell

Design	SET/ MOSFET [5]	Our Proposed 2 peak	Our Proposed 3 peak	RTD/ HFET [19]	CMOS SRAM [20]
No of elements	1 Tr +2 SET based NDC	1 Tr +2 SET based NDC	1 Tr +2 SET based NDC	1Tr +2 RTD	6 Tr
No of Logic states	2	3	4	2	2
Background Charge Dependent	YES	YES	YES	NO	NO
Standby Power (W)	5.5nW	0.98nW	5.06nW	50nw	<1pW

The ternary memory can therefore store three logic states 0, 1 and 2 at a standby current of $6.99\text{E-}10$ resulting in an average standby power consumption of 0.98nW . The V_{ref} of 1.41V gives stable voltages at 437mV , 707mV and 979mV respectively with an average logic margin of 270 mV . Thus it provides more storage with a significant reduction in standby power and higher logic margin. Our proposed 3 peak architecture consumes a standby power consumption which is comparable to the SET/MOSFET in [5] but has an advantage of 4 logic states making it suitable for use in Quaternary storage with around the same power consumption and slightly lower logic margin.

Table 6.2 compares the SRAM cell of different technologies. Our multiple valued logic SET memory designs provide lower standby power than the SET/MOSFET from [5] as well as RTD/HFET. Although the static memory cell could not compete with the CMOS static memory cell, which consumes less than 1 pW [14], it is suitable for the high-density memory system because of its more compact size than the CMOS static memory cell.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

7.1 CONCLUSION

In this research work we have presented a low power design for static memory cells using NDC characteristics of SETs. The circuit parameters have been chosen to make the best trade-off between power and reliability for a particular NDC structure with about 4 times power improvement over the previous work. A new read/write circuit for the memory cell has been proposed. It has also been shown that both temperature and background charges affect the standby power and/or reliability of the memory cell in a negative way. A novel static memory cell with multiple logic states based on SET devices has been presented. The parameters of the SET blocks with NDC are optimized for proper memory operations. The standby power consumption is 0.98nW for 3 logic SET memory cell and 5.06 nW for four logic SET memory cell at 77K with $C_g/C_t = 3$ and $C_o=2C_g$ ($C_t = 0.1\text{aF}$). A static memory using the bistable latch comprised of SET blocks has been designed and simulated. It should also be pointed out that the size of the MVL SET static memory cell is much smaller than the conventional CMOS static memory cell.

7.2 FUTURE WORK

Major reliability issues need to be addressed such as a room temperature operation and background sensitive free device. In terms of memory single electron

devices rule in terms of memory density but still lags behind CMOS which still leads with the lowest standby power consumption. There more work needs to be done in standby power optimisation techniques.

In this thesis we have introduced a novel multiple peak NDC elements based on single electron devices and implemented only in memory application. Negative differential conductance (NDC) characteristic finds a lot of other applications such as in oscillators, amplifiers, digital logic and other memory devices. So our proposed cell can be employed in the above different application.

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APPENDIX A:

PERMISSION FROM CO AUTHOR

In this section a letter that permits the author of this thesis to use the papers that were co-written by Dr. C.Chen is attached.

Permission to Use Previously Published /Submitted Papers

Dr. Chunhong Chen gives permission to Naila Syed to include the following papers into her Master's thesis.

1) Paper accepted in oral session for “Proceedings of 2011 IEEE International Conference on Nanotechnology (IEEE-Nano'11), August 2011, Portland, Oregon, USA”.
entitled:

N.Syed and C.Chen, “*Low Power SET-Based SRAM Cell Design Using Negative Differential Conductance*”, in Proc. of IEEE-Nano'11, pp. 744-747, August 2011, Portland, Oregon, USA.

2) Paper to be submitted for publication
entitled :

N.Syed and C.Chen, “*Low Power SET-Based SRAM Cells for Binary and Multiple-Valued Logic*”

Sincerely,

Dr. Chunhong Chen

VITA AUCTORIS

Naila Syed was born in 1983 in Dammam, Saudi Arabia. She completed her Bachelors of Science degree from the St. Ann's college, India in 2004. She then completed her Master of Science specialising in Applied Electronics from Sujata College for Girls in 2008. At the time of writing this thesis, Naila is a member of the Research Centre for Integrated Microsystems Lab, a student member of Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) and a candidate for the degree of M. A. Sc. in Electrical and Computer Engineering, at the University of Windsor (Ontario, Canada). Her research interests include development of a new architecture for SRAM cell based on SET technology and modeling of SETs.